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BULLETIN

VOLUME XXVIII

NUMBER 4



College War Adjustments  
Learning, Light and Liberty  
The Baccalaureate Degree

**DECEMBER, 1942**



# *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*

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Edited by

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STATEMENT BY PRESIDENT CHARLES E. DIEHL AT  
THE SPECIAL MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION  
OF AMERICAN COLLEGES, PHILADELPHIA,  
PENNSYLVANIA OCTOBER 29, 1942

**B**ECAUSE of the critical situation facing our colleges and the speed with which things must now move, the Board of Directors has taken the liberty to waive the four weeks' time requirement of the By-Laws, and has called this special meeting of the Association, which, under the circumstances and by your vote, may take the place of the annual meeting which is scheduled to be held in Cleveland, Ohio, January 14-15, 1943.

For the past few years we have noted the steady development of a world-wide war and the resulting disturbance to the intellectual life of every nation, whether directly involved in the military contest or not. We had been forewarned, and were not entirely unprepared for the demands of the present hour. It is not easy, however, for those who have been reared to practice the democratic way of life, who desire and expect to live in peace, who have been educated for life, to adjust themselves to a situation in which they must defend themselves from those who have been educated for death and destruction. We might not have had the wisdom and courage deliberately to take the plunge into war, but the choice was made for us. We had no option, and now young men and old are confronted with stark realities. We are called upon to maintain our freedom at the sacrifice of our comforts, our plans, our possessions, and perhaps our own and our children's lives. It has become our duty at all costs to conquer the enemy in a total war, the most ruthless and devastating in history.

The institutions of higher learning, probably without exception, at least since Pearl Harbor, have given their wholehearted allegiance to the winning of the war, and have willingly placed at the disposal of the Government their entire facilities. The liberal arts colleges are not uninterested in their continued perpetuity, for they believe that their continued existence is essential for the development of an intelligent leadership, without which our way of life cannot be maintained. To claim that we are not concerned about our vested interests would mark us either

as insincere or as unworthy of the positions we hold. The liberal arts colleges are as patriotic as are the schools of engineering, medicine, dentistry, and others engaged in professional and specialized training, but we are in the midst of a war which is largely mechanized, and specialized training is immediately imperative. When the house is on fire, it is the first job of every one to put out the fire. Vested interests must never take precedence over national welfare. The liberal arts colleges resent the wholly unfair suggestion that they are havens for draft dodgers. They mean to be arsenals for democracy, training centers for those qualified personalities who would, as a result of this training, render their greatest service in the fight for freedom.

This was the attitude of this organization at the meeting in Baltimore on January 2, 1942, and it is increasingly the attitude today. As the intervening months have passed there has been a keener realization of the seriousness of the situation which confronts us, of our debt to our Allies, and of our own responsibility in a total war. We have learned a great deal which we should already have known. We have become much more humble and grateful and unselfish and determined. We have quit underestimating the enemy, and no longer hear the suggestion that "we go over and wipe out the insignificant little Japs some morning before breakfast." Nor are we unappreciative of the fortitude, sacrifices and unbeatable spirit of our Allies.

As I looked over the minutes of the Baltimore meeting and thought of what has occurred since that time, three things were outstanding. First, the enthusiasm of that January meeting and the wise plans which were adopted at that time. Second, the resulting activity on the part of the officials and committees of this Association. The Board of Directors has not been unmindful of its responsibility. The Executive Director has been alert, active and efficient, working day and night in the New York office or in Washington. Vice-President James B. Conant has dedicated his brilliant talents, both personally and officially, to the war effort, and he has rendered a service of inestimable value to this Association.

Third, the disappointing results of all our efforts, results that are out of all disproportion to the efforts put forth. Among educational organizations there has been a medley of confused

voices, and we have faced altered attitudes and points of view among Government agencies. In all of these contacts and relations there has been a great deal of what David Harum calls "human nature," and, as he notes, some of us have more of this than others.

Some time ago the leaders in the colleges and universities decided to combine their efforts under the influence and direction of the American Council on Education, which had been organized by them at the time our country entered World War I, as the channel for the combined forces of higher education in the service of the nation.

President Edmund E. Day, of Cornell University, who is Chairman of the American Council on Education, like President Conant, of Harvard, has almost divorced himself from the institution of which he is the head, in order to give his valuable services for the war effort. Chairman Day and President George F. Zook, of the American Council on Education, together with Dr. Francis J. Brown and others, have worked day and night in conferences and committee meetings in the interest of higher education. Sporadic efforts were made by a number of organizations, and a very important meeting was called by the American Council on Education in Baltimore on July 15-16, 1942. The results of this meeting were also disappointing. Finally, in September there was appointed by the American Council on Education a representative committee of 13, including Dr. George F. Zook, who is *ex officio* a member, on the Relation of Higher Education to the Federal Government. The Chairman of this committee is Doctor Day, to whom we all owe a great debt of gratitude, who will at this time give us an accurate report on what has already happened, and will tell us what is the grim outlook for the future.

## EDITORIAL NOTES

**"REGISTRATION IN BRITISH UNIVERSITIES** has fallen from the 1939 figure of 50,000 students to 37,000, but the number of women enrolled remains almost the same—11,000.

Men students in non-technical subjects are allowed one year's deferment above the calling-up age—eighteen and one-half years—provided that they undertake fairly rigorous military training. Science and technical students are given deferment for two or more years, and medical students for five years. A "war degree" is granted by most universities after two years' attendance, plus satisfactory subsequent national service.

Women at the age of twenty are now subject to conscription as auxiliaries in the armed forces. They are normally granted deferment only until the end of the academic year in which they reach their twentieth birthday. They may stay for one more year if they proceed immediately after graduation to an approved technical or higher course.

Both men and women students at Teachers' Training colleges receive the same deferments as for scientists.

All students and staff members are liable for twelve hours of fire-watching or other A.R.P. work per week. Many put in heavy additional volunteer duties.

Special courses, known as State Bursaries, have been added at Government request, ranging from six months to two years, and from radio physics to Oriental languages. There are also special short courses in statistics, personnel management for women, tropical and wartime medicine, and special preparatory work for students wishing to enter the Engineers, Artillery, Signal or Armored Corps."—Statement from *Bulletins from Britain*, Number 108, week ending September 23, 1942.

**THE OFFICE OF CENSORSHIP**, District Postal Censor, Miami, Florida, is in need of approximately 100 translators of either the Spanish or Portuguese languages. Any one interested should communicate with Hugh H. Gordon, Jr., Chief of the Recruitment and Placement Section, at the above office of censorship.



**THE EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL CELEBRATION OF NEGRO HISTORY WEEK** will take place February 7-14, 1943. The schools will have the opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned from the study of the race during the year. What the Negro has done to advance democracy will be the central thought of *The Negro History Bulletin* throughout the year. Further information is available at the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, 1538 Ninth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.

**PROGRESS TO FREEDOM** is the absorbing tale of the schools of America, their hampered and primitive beginnings, their first liberators, their great men and their gradual development toward a new freedom. The author, Agnes E. Benedict, has made the story of American education living and real. The book closes with a picture of our schools today—"with their splendid possibilities and their very real shortcomings, with the dream still unrealized, and the challenge to realize it." Published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

**THE FIRST HUNDRED YEARS—ROANOKE COLLEGE, 1842-1942**, has been written by William Edward Eisenberg and published by the trustees of the college. It is an authentic history and gives a complete and continuous picture of Roanoke College at Salem, Virginia, from its earliest years to the present time.

**ALEXANDER MEIKLEJOHN** has written a new book entitled **EDUCATION BETWEEN TWO WORLDS**. This lifelong educator here relates the dilemma of Western civilization at war to the failures of public education. By a comparison of the philosophies of five important educations, Dr. Meiklejohn sets forth what he believes to be an adequate basis for an educational philosophy after the war. Harper & Brothers, New York, are the publishers.

**THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA, 1892-1942**, is a history of the first fifty years of that institution by Roy Gittinger. The book contains much of the history of Oklahoma, for the university has experienced most of the growing pains of the state. Published by the University of Oklahoma Press, Norman.



**A THIRTY-YEAR CATALOG OF GRANTS**, showing recipients and totals of grants made by Carnegie Corporation of New York during the period November 10, 1911, to September 30, 1941, has been compiled by Robert M. Lester, Secretary of the Corporation. In his *Introduction* Mr. Lester writes, "During this period the Corporation, from its income, has appropriated in grants, already paid or promised to pay, a total of \$185,000,000. Where has the money gone? For what? This Catalog is designed to give a general answer to those questions. It is not a guide or an index to individual grants. It is not an attempt to indicate the results of grants. It does contain data sufficient to identify and classify the recipients; to indicate the totals received, the general purpose of the grants and to some extent their relation to programs of the Corporation."

**THE TRAINING OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS**—especially with reference to English—is a report, just off the Harvard University Press, of a joint committee of the faculty of Harvard College and of the Graduate School of Education. The titles of the book's six chapters indicate the nature of the report: (1) The Social Setting of Secondary Education in the United States, (2) Confusion of Aims in High School English, (3) Existing Dilemmas in the Training of Teachers, (4) Possible Aims of Teaching English in the Secondary Schools, (5) Basic Needs and Courses in Education, (6) Conclusions and Recommendations. "This report therefore begins with some examination of the place of secondary schools in American society: the effects of existing conditions upon young people, the effects upon the schools, and the effects upon the quality of those now teaching," and is eminently worth-while.

**THE CONSOLIDATION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA**, written by David A. Lockmiller, is, in the words of Fred J. Kelly, chief of the Division of Higher Education of the U. S. Office of Education, "a concise and readable account . . . a very worth-while contribution to the literature of higher education. The most significant contribution of Dr. Lockmiller's study is that he considers consolidation not as a single act which is consummated in State legislation but as a con-

tinuous process going on over the years." Published by the University of North Carolina.

**M**MAGNIFICENT DELUSION is a little book of great importance by Fred G. Clark. It is a defense of the free enterprise system. "The purpose of this highly condensed volume," writes Mr. Clark in his *Preface*, "is to trace, examine, and evaluate the trend in our national character, toward the end that those of us who want to do something about it may here find some clues as to method and procedure." Herbert Hoover said of it, "A critical portrait of democracy that should have a vital meaning to every American regardless of class, party, race, or creed." Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, is the publisher.

**T**HE WAR DEPARTMENT BUREAU OF PUBLIC RELATIONS has compiled a book, *The Background of Our War*, from lectures prepared by the Orientation Course which has become an integral feature of every soldier's basic military training. Published by Farrar and Rinehart, New York.

**B**IG BUSINESS AND RADIO is the extraordinary story of the Radio Corporation of America from the pen of Gleason L. Archer, president of Suffolk University and author of *History of Radio to 1926*. However, President Archer writes, "Disabuse your mind at once of any idea that the present volume is a mere continuation of the *History of Radio to 1926*. On the contrary, much of the struggle from which the volume takes its name was fought and won prior to July, 1926. The bulk of this volume consists of a story based upon records opened for the first time to any historian." An historical book of unusual interest and value. The American Historical Company, Inc., New York, is the publisher.

**T**HE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON PUBLIC AFFAIRS has published two new volumes. One is *America's Struggle for Free Schools* written by Sidney L. Jackson in which he tells of the social tension and education in New England and New York during the period 1827-42. The other is *Liberty and Learning*, in which David Edison Bunting relates the activities of the American Civil Liberties Union in behalf of freedom of education.

**R**ADIO IN STATE AND TERRITORIAL EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENTS, by Carroll Atkinson, is primarily a source book recording successes and failures of all fifty-seven of the state and territorial educational departments. A brief chronological history of the movement to date is also given. The Meador Publishing Company, Boston.

**"L**IBERAL CULTURE . . . is a quest for standards of excellence, standards of straight thinking, of the enjoyment of beauty, and of good and wise living. . . . Perhaps we may get a rough notion of a man's culture from the way he speaks and writes his own language, and the way he treats people less learned or fortunate than himself. You can find out from objective tests whether a man is a good chemist or bacteriologist or salesman, but you cannot tell whether he is a gentleman until you hear him talk and see him in action."—John Rothwell Slater, *Professor Emeritus*, University of Rochester.

**T**HE TENTH ANNIVERSARY OF BROTHERHOOD WEEK, sponsored by The National Conference of Christians and Jews, will be celebrated throughout the nation the week of Washington's birthday, February 19–28, 1943. The war should make its appeal stronger than ever. President Roosevelt commends the observance of BROTHERHOOD WEEK to all citizens. He says, "I like the slogan 'Victory for Brotherhood.' I trust that the call of the National Conference of Christians and Jews to affirm anew the religious principles of understanding, justice, friendliness, and cooperation on which the realization of brotherhood rests will be heeded across the land by those of every occupation and religious allegiance. It is the application of these principles that makes our country united and strong."

## LEARNING, LIGHT AND LIBERTY

MARJORIE HOPE NICOLSON

PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

"**A** UNIVERSITY," declared Benjamin Disraeli in a speech before the Commons in 1873, "should be a place of light, of liberty, of learning." No more succinct definition can be found even today; and at no time in the world's history has it been more essential that students, scholars and administrators should reaffirm their belief in these words. If I rearrange the order of words in Disraeli's sentence, my purpose, I trust, will become clear. In this particular period, it is essential for us to say rather that a university should be a place of learning, light and liberty.

*A university should be a place of learning.* I begin with this, though my colleagues and I would undoubtedly prefer to end with it, as did Disraeli. But this is the easiest and most obvious definition of a university, the one upon which the scholar and the man-in-the-street would agree. Yet to that man in the street, passing by our buildings on his way to work, the phrase means something quite different. The layman thinks of colleges and universities as places of "learning" in a simple sense: they are places where students "learn" and teachers teach. To him the function of higher education differs not in kind but in degree from that of elementary and secondary schools. As he passes by our buildings, he notices merely that students sit in classrooms and take notes, or join in discussion, or write examinations, or that they work in laboratories. To him this is as it should be. If he thinks about it at all, he thinks merely that the "college" or "university"—he makes no distinction between the terms—is a continuation of the work of the elementary and secondary schools to which he sent his son or daughter. He has no idea that to us, engaged in university education, the connotation of the term "learning" is quite different. For whatever the function of the "college"—and we may agree to disagree about that for the present—the true end of a university is less the dissemination

NOTE: Address delivered at the Opening Exercises—189th Year—of Columbia University, September 23, 1942.

of knowledge through teaching, than the accumulation of knowledge through research. The layman is occasionally interested in the results of research, when the newspapers discuss a supposed cure for cancer, or some newly discovered effect of vitamin-starvation; his occasion is caught for a moment by a statement that George Washington did or did not cut down the cherry tree. He does not understand that to us, adding a cubit to the stature of truth is the all-important matter, no matter whether the addition of that cubit has any practical effect upon daily life. To him the Grammarian's Funeral—if he knows anything about it—seems merely the inevitable and appropriate end of the Grammarian, who, though he did not know it, had been dead "from the waist down" for many years. Much that we call "learning" remains, and must remain, for many generations beyond the layman's pale; some of it inevitably remains so forever. "Many shall run to and fro and knowledge shall be increased"; the words may be spoken seriously or with irony. Even at our best we must seem to the layman little more than Bacon's "busy ants," infinitely busy about nothing important, searching and collecting, and bringing our conclusions to a common center. But fortunately I do not need to defend to scholars the thesis that a chief end of a university is that it shall continue to be a place of learning.

*A university should be a place of light.* Is this mere rhetoric, or is it too a fundamental tenet of our belief? Always a figure loved by poets, the concept of light has taken on profound meaning in at least two generations—in the seventeenth century, and again today. I know of no figures more persistent in the prose and poetry of that earlier age than those drawn from light. My mind goes back inevitably to the works of two great masters of the English language, Bacon and Milton. Perhaps it was only natural that the blind poet, "dark, dark, dark amidst the blaze of noon," should have expressed most poignantly the human desire for light—light for the body, light for the mind. Light glimmers, shines and gleams in Milton's work, in the "celestial light" of Paradise, the light insufferable which surrounded Deity, the lurid flames of Hell making even darkness visible, the "holy Light, offspring of Heaven's first born." Yet Bacon, too, a man of so different stamp, so much less apparent sensitivity,

was no less enthralled by the idea of light. Light is everywhere in Bacon: in his favorite figure of branched candlesticks, of torches, of the sun, of truth like a pearl shewing best in varied lights, of truth which is a naked and open daylight. His Merchants of Light were scholars who, sailing throughout the world, might take with them commodities for barter or exchange, but who sought one thing only—light for the intellect, light to illuminate the New Atlantis. The end of the method which he wished to establish was expressed in two figures of speech: Experiments of Fruit, and Experiments of Light. Of the two, Experiments of Light were essential; until the Light had shone, the Fruit could not finally ripen. Rhetoric again, if you wish to call it so; but through such rhetoric one of the most practical men who ever lived expressed his practical philosophy, which was to lead ultimately to the "benefit and use of man," the "relief of man's estate." No, it was not mere rhetoric which led Bacon and Milton and so many of their contemporaries in the seventeenth century to what sometimes seems an obsession with the idea of Light. To them, as to generations who believed in the Bible, the first creation of Deity and the last were the same creation: on the first day God created the light of the heavens; on the last day he created the light of man's intellect. The chief end of man, no matter how the catechisms might state it, was to walk humbly with his God, and to keep aflame the light which God had implanted within him, the light of human reason.

Again today, Light has taken on profound meaning, though the source of the interest is tragically different. Perhaps because man had come to command light artificially, man had almost ceased to be aware of light—until the shadow of war began to black it out. "Lights out!" Consider our connotation of that phrase today. It is the air-warden's cry, the warning of potential danger. "Lights out in Europe"—it has ceased to be merely a popular caption, and is fast becoming a reality. The "black-out" which seemed at first excitement and is now becoming mere routine, is tragically symbolic of the black-out which may face civilization, culture and our whole heritage from the past. Is there, I wonder, something prophetic in the fact that today, in this war, light has become something not to be praised or worshipped, but something to be feared? Cowering in the



dark, civilized man and woman attempt to escape the enemy; darkness is the friend, light the foe.

Today, more certainly than at any time in the past, a university must be a place of light. It must strive to keep aflame the light of man's reason, to preserve the clear light of intellect, to continue to carry on the flame of truth which it has inherited from the past. Even though the lights of libraries and laboratories must burn behind black-out shades, burn they must, lest the black-out, or at least the dim-out of civilization set in, and the darkness is the friend, light the foe.

*A university should be a place of liberty.* In Disraeli's sentence, the climactic function of the university was to be a place of learning. But in time of war, even those of us who, as scholars, still believe that that is the chief end of a university, are forced to transpose our words, and agree that in the immediate issue, it is our duty to be aware of the function of a university in the preservation of liberty. It is ironic today to look back and remember the amount of fuss we made in those seemingly placid years between two wars about "liberty" in our universities. Ten years ago, what was our chief association with that word, so far as universities were concerned? It was, we all remember, with the issue of so-called "academic freedom." I am not denying that that was an important matter; but how pale and insignificant it seems now, when "freedom" and "liberty" hold so much more tragic significance. The idea of "freedom of speech" continues to be important, as throughout great portions of the earth, we find such freedom prohibited, not only by law but even more by violence. Yet we are forced to realize that academic freedom and freedom of speech are only parts of a much broader conception of liberty, and that liberty itself is under attack throughout the whole world. It is unnecessary to remind such an audience as this of what has happened to our academic colleagues abroad. We know only too well that in countries dominated by Hitler, not only is there no freedom of speech—academic or otherwise—but that education itself is enslaved and diverted to the purposes of political dictators. We know it; we protest it; but as yet we have not profited by the most bitter lesson which Germany has to teach to educators throughout the world—and that is, that *education does matter*. I often wonder how many of us have really



believed that in the past—have really thought it mattered ultimately *what* we taught or *how* we taught. But from the example of Germany, which in one generation transformed a nation through education, we must become aware that it *does* matter profoundly what youth is taught and how youth is taught. The educational system of Germany, over a period of time only long enough to see the passage of youth from elementary schools to the university age, was geared to one main purpose: to teach youth to be not only willing but eager to be slaves to the state. What have we to show in contrast? Have we used our elaborate and expensive system of education—the “free” education upon which we have so prided ourselves—to teach youth to be willing to be *free*? And yet it would seem to be much easier to teach freedom than to teach slavery, if freedom is, as we have vaguely and loosely asserted, a natural instinct of man. Among the natural rights of man and the natural desires of man, we have, from the foundation of this country, considered liberty to be paramount. We have paid lip-service to the principles laid down by our founders, repeating, parrot-like, phrases which became commonplace: all men are born free and equal; all men are endowed with natural and inalienable rights; the God who gave us life gave us liberty at the same time; America is the land of the free. Comfortably secure in a sort of hypnosis produced by saying these words over and over, we have in turn taught them to youth. Boys and girls have mumbled the phrases, casually saluted the flag, and—their patriotic duty done—settled down to more important things.

Our trouble has been that, while we have placidly accepted the words of our founders, we have forgotten their meaning. Whether or not liberty is an inalienable right of man, we still do not know. But the bitter years through which we have been living should make us aware that there is no such thing as inevitable political liberty for a nation, large or small. Whether God gives man liberty is a question. That man takes liberty from man—and takes it quickly—the fall of once free nations has proved. It is not even sense, when our eyes have witnessed the collapse of nations, both strong and weak, to continue to repeat easy phrases, to insist that America alone is different, because when God gave Americans life, he gave them perpetual liberty.

Liberty, our founders knew, was "hard liberty"—hard to attain, in blood and sweat and tears, but harder still to maintain. They gained it; have we maintained it?

What has this to do with us, members of a university? This: as scholars we are responsible for considering whether the philosophy upon which our nation was founded is still valid today. As teachers, we are equally responsible with our colleagues in more elementary schools for being constantly aware of the tragic lesson that *education does matter*. I am far from suggesting that education should become indoctrination, in the sense in which such indoctrination has been practised in Germany. I do not believe, either, that we shall finally teach youth the lesson of liberty merely by incorporating into our curricula courses in Democracy or The Principles of American Liberty. I am not suggesting that the classroom should be made a place of propaganda. I am saying that the great fault of education in our time is that we have not really *believed that education matters*. Indeed, many of us in the academic world have prided ourselves upon the fact that we believed little or nothing. We have not put it in those terms, to be sure; we have merely said that we were "liberals," a term ironically sharing the same root as the word *liberty*, and, I am afraid, as loosely conceived. How often we used that term; how variously interpreted it was. To a conservative a "liberal" was a radical; to a radical, a conservative; to us, who used it so often, it was somehow vaguely associated with "tolerance" and "broad-mindedness," with a sort of scepticism which denied little and affirmed less. Perhaps the time has come for us to be less "liberal"; certainly it is high time that we put aside any such vague and ill-defined meaning of the term. As a colleague of mine once put it: "Don't be so open-minded that your brains fall out!" Surely we must have learned that there are values for which men are willing to fight and die. What matter all our philosophical hair-splitting about the transvaluation of values, when in all the great crises of experience we find that men are willing to pay with their lives because they believe in certain values and refuse to have others forced upon them?

If I seem to be suggesting that we cease to be "liberals" it is only that I am protesting a vague sense in which we have come

to use the term. We who know the history of language, remember that in the Latin from which we inherited it, the word was equated with *freedom* and *liberty*. It is time that we "liberals" of the academic world grow up and lay aside our sophomoric connotations, remembering, rather, a stricter sense of the Latin *liberalis*: "befitting or worthy of a man of free birth." It is one thing to be born free; it is another to continue to be worthy of freedom. As scholars, it remains our function to seek the truth which alone, according to one great teacher, makes man free. As teachers in a liberal institution in America, it is our function to uphold the "liberal arts," upon which our great American institutions are based. That sense of the word *liberal* we need to redefine in times like these, for the liberal arts are under fire, and unless those of us who believe in them protect them, they will shortly vanish from the earth.

It is one thing to say, as Disraeli said in 1873, that a university should be a place of light, of liberty and of learning. But are universities in a time of total war to continue in this belief? This is a serious question and one upon which, as you know, much paper and ink, and many more words spoken to the unwilling air, have been expended during the last few months. We cannot merely shrug our shoulders and turn off the radio. The whole conception of liberal education in our colleges and universities is under fire, as surely as are our men on sea and land. On the one hand, there is a school of thought—if I may call it so—which is insisting that the kind of education for which we have stood in this university and many others, while all right in placid days, must be summarily suspended when war comes. War brings a need for the practical, the immediate. We are, as you know, set upon by many important men in this country, whose word carries weight, who are demanding that we immediately transform our curricula—as others are demanding that we immediately transform our furnaces. Even the householder knows that it is not always possible or expedient to transform a furnace—yet the transformation of education to the practical, the immediate, is suggested as a still more simple thing. It is not only the pressure from without which may affect our institutions of learning during the next year or so. The enemy is also within our gates. There are institutions and there are administrators who seize

eagerly upon any excuse to cast aside the old and traditional, putting in its place something which seems more immediately attractive. If in what I say I seem to be criticizing some administrators in this country, I ask you to remember that for thirteen years I have myself been an administrator, and that I have reason to know whereof I speak.

I regret to say that any such emergency as the present gives scope for the undoubted talents of two types of administrators. One group is made up of those who always climb on band-wagons, whenever a band-wagon goes by, in order to be in the center of the music and to wave the flag. The present emergency offers them a band-wagon a little higher, a little noisier and much more spectacular than any they have found before. The other group consists in those who have no sincere belief in what they or their colleges are doing: to them publicity is the spice of life; they are more than willing to cast aside all the old in order to seem to try new "experiments," which attract the public fancy. They will take every opportunity, as they did during the depression, to drop from the curricula all subjects which are expensive, and cost too much *per capita*. As an administrator I know what they did during the depression to Greek and Latin, to some of the modern languages, to music and art, to nearly all the expensive subjects. Themselves knowing nothing of the classics, nothing of art and music, little of languages, they considered them frills to be dispensed with as quickly as possible. I know how easy it is to use any emergency as an excuse for lowering standards of both admission and graduation.

I am not suggesting that colleges and universities should not, and must not, adjust to the emergency, in so far as they can do so without sacrificing those offerings which seem to them essential to a fuller and richer life. The great difficulty is to know just what is "practical" and "immediate." Two years ago I was attempting, in an undergraduate college, to stem the tide of students in language courses away from German, French and Italian. But, they insisted, "Spanish is so much more practical." How could they know—how could I have guessed—that the most "practical" of all languages would prove to be Japanese? Who is to determine what is "immediate" and "practical" in a world in which values have changed overnight? I

know, as do you, men who occupy important positions today because of their knowledge of Arabic, or an esoteric acquaintance with one of the dialects of the Pacific Islands. I remember a Chaucerian scholar who, in the last war, proved invaluable in his decoding of cryptograms. Shall I therefore insist that a knowledge of Chaucer is the one essential for students in this war? You and I know, however, many scholars and students who are giving great aid to the Intelligence in this emergency, not because of a specific knowledge of one subject or another, but because of the broad general background in many subjects which they have gained through a liberal education.

In what I have said about various institutions and administrators, I am not criticizing many of our colleges and universities which have "accelerated" their programs this year, and thus have attempted to maintain the kind of balanced diet in which they believe, even if students must be fed more hurriedly than in the past. In passing I pay tribute to many colleagues in those institutions who during this summer have carried on their work, often without payment, in order that young men might complete their programs before going to the battlefield. Yet I have not heard the voice of the unions abroad in the land about these "forgotten men," who have greatly increased their hours of work and received no time-and-a-half for overtime. Nor have I so far heard of any of these faculties which have exercised the great American privilege of striking—and that, in spite of the fact that, unrecognized by gas-rationing boards and priorities boards they have not been considered an industry essential to the war effort. In passing I salute them! They and we are not protesting labor and adjustment. We are merely saying that, in times like these, when pressure is being put upon us by many who are, after all, mere laymen in the educational field, we must assure ourselves that the "adjustment" so much talked about is made with a minimum of sacrifice of those studies which we feel essential to a liberal education. And here again I return to the point I have been making—unless we ourselves believe firmly in the value of the subjects we teach, to which we have given our lives, we will not be able to stem the tide of opposition which is threatening to overthrow our kind of education.

I am persuaded that to the larger part of the academic world,



devotion to the ideals of learning, light and liberty is sincere and true. We have made a partial answer to the charge that we are removed from life in those of our men and women who have enlisted; and in those who have given their services in Washington and elsewhere to other forms of active duty. Those of us who either through choice or necessity remain behind the lines must show that we remain for some purpose. Adjust to the present and the immediate we must and will. But we have also good authority for the fact that we are right in looking beyond the present to the future. The Atlantic Charter was signed in an ocean which was already a theatre of war. It dealt not with the immediate and the practical, but with the future. To be sure, the leaders of this nation and of Britain encountered protest and vituperation from one group, who felt that they should concern themselves only with the immediate and the practical, and that it was not part of their function to "dip into the future far as human eye could see," to concern themselves with "the vision of the world and all the wonder that would be." Yet both of them realized that in time of war, in spite of the pressure of the present, the future must not be forgotten. So we who are responsible for education must consider not only the present but the future, for, more than any other one group, we are the guardians of the future. It is part of our function to plan for peace, to decide on the education of the future. It is certainly part of our function to carry on the long tradition of learning and culture, given into our hands by Europe, that, when peace comes, there may be no cultural lag, and that we may repay with interest to all countries of Europe what we have so easily taken from them. We have heard much about "war debts" in our time; we have heard much less of the vast cultural debt of America to the civilization of Europe. We, and we alone at present, have the comparative peace and security which permits us to carry on learning. Into our hands has been given the torch of the intellectual light of the world. We still have liberty, in a sense in which that word is hardly known abroad. We scholars, who have taken so much from Europe—will we repudiate our debts?

There is one great definition of education which still seems to me valid. Writing almost exactly three hundred years ago, Milton in his *Tractate on Education* thus defined our province: "I

call therefore a complete and generous education, one that fits a man to perform, skillfully, justly and magnanimously, all the offices, both public and private, of peace and war." "Skillfully"—you will notice; none of us deny the importance of teaching skills. "Justly, magnanimously"—justice and magnanimity are not likely to be taught in "skills" courses, and in courses immediately adapted to the war effort. "All the offices, both public and private, of peace and war." We are more than willing to undertake any of the offices of war which we can perform; but we ask the world to remember that the function of a university is also to think in terms of ultimate peace. Most of all, I call attention to Milton's words: "a complete and generous education." If our education in the past has been incomplete, perhaps adjustment to war will tend to make it more complete. Even more important, I believe, is the word "generous." Our adversaries, who are attacking education under many guises, would seek to deprive education of the quality of generosity. The generous education must stress more than the immediate, the practical; it must be a "liberal" education, which alone can make men free, an education which, while it does not discount the present, remembers that time also includes past and future. To such a complete and generous education, we dedicate ourselves, believing sincerely that in time to come education will keep alive in the world learning, light and liberty.



## EDUCATE A WOMAN

MILDRED HELEN MCAFEE

LIEUTENANT-COMMANDER, WOMEN'S RESERVE, UNITED STATES  
NAVAL RESERVES

PRESIDENT, WELLESLEY COLLEGE

**I** HAVE chosen my theme from the title of your Fiftieth Anniversary historical booklet. It impressed me as a booklet of very readable and significant interest. It impressed me as a theme appropriate for an occasion like this when the specific occasion is important because it has general meaning for a far larger group than the one assembled here.

"Educate a Woman." In the mid-Nineteenth Century, those words registered a mood which is indicated in writing by that useful though inexact punctuation mark, the exclamation point. To an inexpert, unprofessional writer like myself, the exclamation point is far more useful than teachers of rhetoric or composition ever wanted it to be. I use it—too frequently—to indicate "This is obviously an absurd idea"—or "Don't take this seriously, I am trying to be funny"—or "Imagine such nonsense."

When the predecessors of Charles Duncan McIver, Edwin Anderson Alderman, and the rest of your founders talked about the education of women, they lived in an era of Dickensian exclamation—Educate a woman! Bah! Humbug!

After all, why disturb the natural state of ignorant bliss of half the population? Or, from a different point of view, why inject the hard methods of formal education into the intuitive wisdom of womanhood? It not only threatens health—imagine a mere girl surviving the rigors of higher education—but it would certainly cheapen her feminine charm. Quite clearly she would not be as happy in a state of intelligence as she would be in a condition of innocence and it was obviously contrary to nature to treat her as a thinking person capable of profiting by higher education.

Fortunately for this college, this state, this nation and the

NOTE: Address delivered at Fiftieth Anniversary of North Carolina College for Women, Greensboro, North Carolina, October 5, 1942.

world served by the college women inspired here, there were at least a few men and women who found another note entering their voices as they used these terms. The exclamation point began to yield to the question mark.

Educate a woman? Well maybe there is something in that after all. Is it not possible that when woman's place is in the home, the home can be more interesting if the woman is educated? Is it unreasonable to assume that the society which has recognized the value of trained and informed minds for its professional leadership might profit enormously if the other half of its population were equally favored?

Question piled upon question. *How* should girls be educated? It has always seemed appropriate compensation to underprivileged girls that when forward-looking men and women undertook to launch the drastic new experiment of educating women they took occasion to experiment with most interesting new methods. It gives me satisfaction, for instance, that women's colleges introduced student laboratories before they were accepted as either necessary or desirable at such an eminently reputable institution as Harvard University. I am sometimes led to suspect that women were thought incapable of comprehending scientific lectures and were therefore taught by being shown in the laboratory. I am sure there were early pioneers in women's higher education who thought learning by doing was sound educational theory. Unable to modify the established routine of traditional colleges as rapidly as they wanted to, they tried the new idea in the new situations and found it good.

At this distance from New England I venture to remark that housing units have long been established as educational opportunities in women's colleges. Yale and Harvard discovered it the Harkness way long after every woman's college had demonstrated the value of the house plan. The answers to the questions as to how to educate women have produced some interesting results for all education.

Fortunately there came an era "at the turn of the century" and shortly thereafter when the question mark of our theme yielded to the period. No longer, "Educate a Woman! Bah!" No longer, "Educate a Woman?" But simply, affirmatively, "Educate a Woman." Higher education has become established

as a normal procedure. The attitude toward it now is, "Of course. Why not?"

It has been interesting to a college president to realize how natural it seemed to Naval officials to apply to women applicants for commissions the same educational standards which apply to men. A college degree is by no means rare among American women and being a college woman has within the last two generations come to be indicative of no more originality or intelligence than is involved in the degree for men.

This normality of college training threatens some important values. Taking anything for granted keeps it from exerting all the stimulus which it *can* exert and it is probably the chief justification for semi-centennial celebrations that they challenge us to reconsider the value of institutions which have become so established as parts of our normal surroundings that we tend to take them for granted.

If I speak in rather general terms, stressing attitudes rather than proposing methods, it is because I am so conscious of the importance of attitudes and their significance as compared with mere formulae of action.

No question is asked me more often than how a girl qualifies for entrance into the Women's Reserve or any other direct government service. It is relatively easy to list courses she may study in school or college: mathematics, restored to respectability by the exigencies of war; sciences of all kinds; languages; the tool equipment of adequate English composition and the ever convenient spelling and punctuation.

Most of you have probably heard the story which went the rounds of Washington this summer—that stenographers were so scarce that a new classification test was established. A girl was taken to a room in which a washing machine, a refrigerator and a typewriter were located. If she could recognize the typewriter she was a stenographer. This nonsense indicates the importance of skills of the many kinds needed in a war effort.

Even more than skills and techniques, however, there is a pressing demand for certain attitudes, on the basis of which people can be effectively used in war service. I heard of one important war task which needed people described as needing "physical fitness, alertness, excellent eyesight, good hearing, strong nerves,

patience, intelligence and absolute reliability." These are products of good health and good character. They represent general qualifications which make an individual adaptable to many types of situations.

It is not enough to train people in skills to make them useful in war or peace. They need to cultivate attitudes of mind and heart which can make them ready to acquire the skills which new situations perennially require. These are values we have a right to expect from educational institutions.

When we focus attention on these values it is interesting to notice how each new era carries the mark of the preceding ones. The punctuation marks of the next half century are all at hand. There are advocates of each mood ready to defend their cases.

The Bah! Humbug! Exclamation Point mood is not far away as some Americans face the post-war status of women. They say in effect that of course during wartime women have their uses, but it is evident that when it is won women will of course settle back into more or less innocuous desuetude. Why worry about their education? As for maintaining it now, "how silly," they say—"We are at war and education is a useless luxury."

It is my impression that the humbug attitude is even more out of date now than it was in the 1870's. There is of course some precedent for taking pre-war parities as a standard of modern adjustments but it is my sincere hope that we will not move to a pre-Civil War basis in establishing post-global war standards for education.

We are, however, going to face a post-war period of gigantic realignments of personnel and function. In that readjustment it will be easy to suggest that the newest group to be included in civic and industrial employment, women, should be the first to be dropped when Army and Navy demobilization begins. There is no sense in becoming bitter about this normal inclination on the part of public opinion.

On the other hand, there is no sense in acquiescing to a group fallacy. We are fighting a stupendous war *partly* to attack a social philosophy which treats individuals as nothing but representatives of their group. Our way of life which seems to us worth dying for, insists that the individual's uniqueness is as sacred as his typicalness. Woman as woman is an intellectual

abstraction. We are concerned with the education and effective participation in society of *a* woman; this one, that one, every woman with the strength of her uniqueness.

In the war and post-war needs of American society, it is ineffectual and inefficient to lump all men and women, all of any social category, into one classification as though there were no individual characteristics to be considered in evaluating each person's utility.

The easiest way to make hasty selections from among many individuals applying for a limited number of positions is to establish an easily-recognized standard to which each successful candidate must conform. This is a good method if there is any inherent connection between the standard of selection and the job to be done. The objection to relegating women (as such) to any particular set of occupations is that some women are better qualified than some men to do some things outside "woman's special sphere." This is so self-evident in wartime that I hesitate to be so trite—but I prophesy that it will not seem trite after the war is over.

It is to be hoped that the demonstration in wartime of the versatility and adaptability of American women will be sufficient evidence to shatter some of the myths about feminine inadequacy. If that hope is fulfilled it will follow that women will continue to merit the opportunity to be educated.

It is further to be hoped that no woman during or after the war will use the fact of her womanhood as a justification for inefficiency. There are limitations in the path of women—different from but not much more numerous than those in the way of all human beings. There are some popular prejudices about women which keep them away from magnificent opportunities. There are some personal idiosyncrasies of men or women which keep them from those same opportunities. It is unfortunate when a person who might change her ways and accomplish something sits back in resignation cherishing her idiosyncrasy and blaming her failure on the prejudice against women instead of on herself.

The humbug attitude is a threat to education in general. Already there are critics demanding that all education should be immediately practical. By this they frequently mean that it must cultivate mechanical manual arts. Let us hope that among

the friends of this college and the others like it, there will emerge defenders of the practical value of trained minds as well as trained hands.

If there is any aspect of academic life which I dislike—and a summer in Washington has made it hard for me to remember anything but attractive features in college life—it is the smugness of exponents of different schools of academic theory. If any segment of the population should be expected to be cognizant of the value of each part of the whole, it should be the scholar looking at life from the perspective of his understanding. One would think he would see that one particular type of academic work might legitimately be done side by side with another, but we all know all too well the almost vindictive snobbishness of some scholars toward others. I suppose it can be interpreted as compensation for their own sense of inadequacy or a defense mechanism or something. I wish it didn't have to be explained at all, for I wish it would cease to exist. Training hands, cultivating skills, techniques, stimulating thinking, acquiring ideas, acquiring information of the past and of the present, knowing our own culture and others foreign to it—why establish permanent priorities among them? We shall not be an educated nation until all these and others are included in our program and educated women might well work to strengthen the interest in variety without establishing hierarchies of academic respectability.

The next half century will include many question marks for education after the humbug skepticism is past—as it will pass. How to finance the colleges of the future is an unanswered question—but no more unanswered than how to finance the present war. Having accomplished the one, I prophesy that the other will be done and a college which is meeting a genuine need will survive into whatever new economic structure is put together during and after the war. I suspect higher education will continue to take many forms and that individual students will have increasing opportunity to be subsidized from public funds for study in institutions appropriate to their special abilities. I hope the war's lesson of the importance of individuals as measured by their contribution to society will shatter the last vestige of claim that it is economic and not personal ability which offers opportunity for education.



Most important in the next half century are the great affirmations of faith in education which we hope to find asserted wherever the products of this and other colleges are at work in the world.

Educate a woman—and you offer to society a thinker who can resolve problems imaginatively. Educate a woman—and you offer to society a doer who can deal with situations effectively. Educate a woman—and you offer to society a believer who pursues ideals ceaselessly. This is the kind of education with which this college is associated.

Society needs thinkers, not trivial manipulators of words as symbols of superficial notions, but thinkers who are willing and able to tackle significant problems whose solution affects the long-range welfare of mankind. Thinkers like this need to be at ease with facts and to be practiced in dealing with them. They must be unafraid of problems but not so lured by them that they become lost in intellectual abstractions. They need to be thinkers who are either doers or have, at least, respect for doers.

Society needs doers, who respect thinkers—doers who use their energy on issues of real importance, issues affecting the welfare of more than their immediate local group. It needs doers with skill for accomplishment and vision for direction—capable, effective, reliable builders of civic and international life.

Doers can be catastrophic unless their action is related to wholesome and worthy ends. So society needs believers whose pursuit of worthy ideals lays the path for doers' activities. The next half century will betray its heritage if it fails to produce men and women who care about achieving goals worthy of citizens of the world. Ideals worth living and dying for can be divisive, destructive of human welfare—a fact so evident in a war period that it needs no amplification. What our world society needs is a goal inclusive enough to allow all mankind a chance to achieve its major potentialities.

Purposes must be explicit enough to give direction, expansive enough to absorb all one's energies. Then belief in one's ideals can guide the doer and the thinker to the accomplishment of effective ends.

Education will not be complete until it includes thinking, doing, believing, as parts of one whole. One individual may be more



adept in one function than in the others, but we will have a more smoothly operating social order when those skilled in one direction at least recognize the value and significance of the others.

As the next half century and all the centuries ahead come and go, North Carolina will have its opportunity to supply the demands of society which in every era will need thinkers, doers, believers. And how will North Carolina meet that demand? May it be in no mood of humbug exclamation, nor of cynical question, but of simple affirmation. You will educate a woman!

## THE AGE OF THE AMERICAS

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**T**HE Age of the Americas has come. The world's center of gravity—intellectual, economic and political—has after four hundred and fifty years followed Christopher Columbus across the Atlantic. Succeeding the long and amazing Ancient Age of Greece and Rome which for more than a thousand years gave to the Western World its leadership and its dominating character, first the Dark Ages and then the Middle Ages came to their respective ends. Then followed the Modern Age that drew its character and its strength from Western Europe and which is now in turn plainly passing into history. The score of independent nations which the Modern Age called into existence and to which it offered opportunity for independent government and policy, are now rocking in the balance. Whether or not they will continue to exist as independent economic and political units, is a question to be answered only by the outcome of the colossal military struggle which reaches and involves every part of the present-day world. In any event, it is already plain that the status of overseas colonies and dependencies of the various European nations will be wholly changed. Indeed, they may not even continue to exist in their present form. The British Commonwealth of Nations will be still more greatly decentralized than it was in 1931 by the Statute of Westminster. The invaluable sources of supply for the economic life of the whole world to be found in the Dutch East Indies may—and probably will—come under some new form of political and economic control. In other words, the Age of Modern Europe is coming to its end. Oswald Spengler was a true prophet in much which he wrote concerning the Western World a quarter-century ago.<sup>1</sup>

We in this Western World have not realized that before our own history began, all this had happened several times and

NOTE: An Address delivered at the Parrish Memorial Art Museum, Southampton, Long Island, September 6, 1942.

<sup>1</sup> Oswald Spengler, *The Decline of the West*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1934. 2 vols.

on a huge scale. The ancient civilizations of the Far East, including those of China, India, Persia and Egypt, together with the Empires of Java and of Korea, both of which so long dominated the Pacific and all of which made literally stupendous achievements in the civilization of their day—are not only forgotten, but to most of us their one-time existence is wholly unknown. Their story will be found in the amazing book, *Glimpses of World History*,<sup>2</sup> which has only just been written by a distinguished leader of the India of today, who was trained at Harrow School and Trinity College, Cambridge. This book records and interprets with almost incredible scholarship and skill, outstanding world events from the beginning of human records of any sort and kind.

On this side of the Atlantic we shall celebrate on October 12, the four hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the first landing of Christopher Columbus on what we have come to know as the Americas. The fact that the group of islands, on one of which Columbus landed, is known as the West Indies, makes it plain that it was thought that he had reached or nearly reached, the continent of Asia. It has taken full four centuries and a half for these then discovered lands to build the foundation upon which their present-day civilization rests, to face the new problems of government and of economic life which dominate this modern world and to prepare themselves, unexpectedly no doubt, to take that world leadership which is now being practically forced upon them. This is how the Age of the Americas has come.

The vast territory which constitutes North America, Central America and South America offers every sort and kind of climate, every sort and kind of soil, and every sort and kind of product which enters into and supports the economic life of a modern people. During the last four centuries and a half, the distance between the Americas and Europe has seemed very great. It is only one hundred years since it took from six to eight weeks to come by sailing vessel from Liverpool to New York. That journey is now made by air in but a few hours. The electric spark and man's amazing scientific discoveries and their adaptations during the past two generations, have absolutely revolution-

<sup>2</sup> Jawaharlal Nehru, *Glimpses of World History*. New York: The John Day Company, 1942. 993 pp.

ized human life and given new meaning to the words human safety and human comfort. It would not be possible for our grandfathers, nor easy for even our fathers, to look out upon the world of today with anything but sheer amazement. How can such things be, is the question which they would ask.

The streams of emigration which began to flow across the Atlantic some three and a half centuries ago were, with the exception of the English settlers of Virginia and the Pilgrim Fathers in Massachusetts, without any dominating political purpose or aim. Their ruling motives were curiosity and economic gain or advantage. It was, however, the influence of the settlers of Virginia and of the Pilgrim Fathers, followed by William Penn and his group, which began the gigantic task of building on these distant and unknown lands the foundations of a new social and political order. These streams of trans-Atlantic migration soon extended to include France, the Netherlands, the Scandinavian countries, Portugal and Spain. Still later, there came vast numbers from Germany, from Italy and from southeastern Europe. The diversities of habit and tradition which marked the home lives of these various peoples, while not leading to animosity and conflict on American soil, did make understanding and close cooperation matters of slow development. Every American who knows his country's history—and every American should know it—is familiar with what was happening during the middle of the eighteenth century, and knows what were the causes, economic and political, which led to the Declaration of Independence made on behalf and in the name of the thirteen colonies in North America, on July 4, 1776. Not many Americans of today, however, in their study of our European relationships, realize that this Declaration of Independence was a final step. It was not made until after those members of the Continental Congress who signed it had proposed to the King—following the battles of Lexington, of Concord and of Bunker Hill—almost precisely the relation between the American colonies and the Crown which now exists on the part of Canada and Australia and South Africa. The solution of the problem which confronted this new and independent nation was far removed from what was then the dominant intellectual and economic life of the world,

and required the leadership, the judgment and the outstanding ability of a George Washington, a Benjamin Franklin, an Alexander Hamilton, a Thomas Jefferson, a John Adams and a John Marshall. There are no greater names than these in the whole history of government. They were all to be found among these widely scattered colonies spread over newly settled and almost wholly undeveloped territory.

The beginnings of the American Republic and the laying of its solid and, we trust, permanent foundations remain the outstanding happenings in the history of the modern world. The organization and the government of other nations have almost without exception grown up slowly and over long periods of time. The government of the United States was called into being by a stroke of the pen under the leadership of statesmen and political philosophers of the highest order of ability. For an American to make this statement is not to boast. It is simply to record obvious historic facts.

Meanwhile and over a longer period of time the stream of migration from the older Latin countries in Europe was moving towards South and Central America. There, too, were huge distances and enormous areas of rich land to be settled and cultivated, together with opportunity for the building of new national units on independent foundations. This movement went forward rapidly year by year and brought into existence significant institutions of higher education which made it plain that these settlers on the western side of the Atlantic Ocean had not left the intellectual life behind. As early as 1538, an institution of higher learning existed in Santo Domingo and the University of Mexico dates from 1553. The distinguished University of San Marcos at Lima, Peru, probably the earliest institution of higher education of first rank to come into existence in the Americas, dates from 1551. This is almost a century before Harvard University, the first institution of higher education to come into existence on the North American continent north of the Rio Grande, was founded.

The huge mountain ranges which separate so many of the Latin American countries from each other made almost impossible the kind of interdependence which grew up among the British colonies in North America. So it was that while the North American

colonies were building a single nation, the Latin American colonies were building a group of separate and independent—but in many respects interdependent—nations to the south.

To the north of the United States is the truly great Dominion of Canada which despite its relatively long history is only at the beginning of its usefulness and its power. Stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, its vast area of 3,694,000 square miles must be classed with the area of the United States, 3,022,000; of Australia, 2,974,000; of Brazil, 3,275,000; of India, 1,808,000; and of China, 4,480,000. The Canadian population, at first drawn chiefly from France and then from Great Britain, has always been marked by the progressive instinct which carried it from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The problems which confront the people of the Dominion of Canada are not dissimilar to those with which the people of the United States have been and are still called upon to deal. The outstanding event in the history of Canada is its agreement with the United States upon the long and wholly unfortified and undefended line, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific, which divides these two vast nations. For a century and a quarter this Canadian-American line has been held up as an example to the whole world of what every international boundary must certainly strive to become. The long existence of this boundary is one of the greatest achievements of the Americas.

Out of all these different influences and conditions has come the America of today. During the two centuries and more while all these developments have been taking place on this side of the Atlantic, there has been growing up a new and different series of problems to confront the nations of Western Europe. Those nations began to be depressed as to their condition and their future at just about the time when Christopher Columbus made his first voyage of discovery. They were developing antagonisms and frictions.<sup>3</sup> They were feeling the effect within their several boundaries of new social, economic, political and religious ideas which were shaking such foundations of the feudal system as were left, and raising questions as to the continued dominance of social classes and reigning houses. For the time being, the

<sup>3</sup> Samuel Eliot Morison, *Admiral of the Ocean Sea: A Life of Christopher Columbus*. Boston: Little Brown and Company, 1942. p. 3.



discovery of America relieved the pressure of these problems in large part, and turned the eyes and hopes of men toward the newly-discovered lands across the Atlantic. Eventually, however, when the novelty of America had worn off, these European conditions and influences returned and were strong enough to write the history of Europe during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. First the English revolution and then the French revolution brought about stupendous changes in the life and political organization of those peoples, and the end was not yet. Scientific discovery and economic pressure led the more ambitious and outward-looking of these nations to build up colonial possessions overseas in every part of the known world. In particular, Great Britain, France and the Netherlands established important, and in some cases literally huge, colonial empires, which gave to the home nations an influence and an economic advantage of which they could never have dreamed.

This in turn led to new international complications and to new international jealousies. When in the middle of the eighteenth century the people of Prussia came to a new self-consciousness and to an increased ambition for power, they began to ask why it should not be possible for them to do what Great Britain, France, the Netherlands and Portugal had already done. Their own national boundaries were not very definitely marked by rivers and mountains. Why should they not spread out and take possession of adjoining territory which would add to their economic resources? This question was asked from the time of Frederick the Great to the time of Bismarck. That constructive and truly philosophic statesman thought he knew how to answer it in a way which would put the German people in a position, if not of economic dominance, at least of very great economic and political power.

During the nineteenth century, while on the surface international relations often showed signs of improvement, underneath the surface forces making for disunity and conflict were steadily growing in influence. Scientific discovery had much to do with these conditions. It produced in momentous fashion one after another alteration in man's mode of life and in his economic needs, which were quite as revolutionary as any theoretical ideals could possibly have been.

The end of Europe's opportunity to guide the way to those international relations upon which alone could rest world prosperity and world peace, came at the close of the Victorian Era which was marked by the passing of the nineteenth century. There is a striking forecast of what was to happen in the famous cartoon by Sir John Tenniel, printed in the English magazine, *Punch*, during the month of March, 1890. That cartoon bore the title, "Dropping the Pilot." It shows Prince Bismarck going over the side of the ship of state, his place in command being taken by the then youthful Kaiser who stood on the deck watching the departure of his old captain. The lesson which this cartoon taught applied not to Germany alone but to the civilization of the whole of Western Europe. It is a striking coincidence that the closing of the Victorian Era, the dropping of Prince Bismarck and the end of the nineteenth century should have come into modern history together. It was then that the end of the leadership of Western Europe in the task of world civilization came plainly into view.

As these world conditions became apparent, outstanding leaders of American opinion grasped the fact, and expressed it, that it was both the opportunity and the duty of the people of the United States to take quick and effective part in world leadership. It was plain to men of vision everywhere that unless some new and effective form of world organization could be brought about in the field of economics and of politics, the governments of the European nations and the government of the United States as well, would find themselves drifting into a condition which must, in all probability, lead to a very widespread and destructive war. This is precisely what happened. The underlying causes of that war which has now been carried on for nearly forty years were chiefly economic and the result of national desire for wide economic control even over parts of the earth's surface far distant from the ambitious nations themselves.

There were those shortsighted enough to believe and to say that the government of the United States at least was so far removed from the center of this struggle that it need take no part in it and that the American people would be unaffected by it. While it seems inconceivable that such views should be held by men of

intelligence and knowledge of world history, they were so held, not only in the United States but in other lands as well.

Decade by decade, year by year, sometimes almost day by day, the electric current has destroyed what long had been the barrier of distance, and has brought the people of every land into close and intimate communication as well as into many new forms of interdependence. When President McKinley made his famous statement, "The period of exclusiveness is past," he spoke a profound truth which applied not only to the people of the United States but to those of Australia, of India, of China, of Japan and of Latin America as well.

The ambition to control the world, or a large part of it, by a single government is not new. It is only a century and a quarter since this was the dream of Napoleon Bonaparte. At the height of his military success he felt that he was reaching this great ambition. Finally, however, he was defeated at Waterloo and fell from power. He recorded the fact that while he himself might have failed to organize the European nations, yet that end would some day be realized. He wrote these words: "Sooner or later this union [of European nations] will be brought about by the force of events. The first impetus has been given; and after the fall of my system it seems to me that the only way in which an equilibrium can be achieved in Europe is through a league of nations."<sup>4</sup>

Napoleon Bonaparte was profoundly right. It is in the Americas that the most convincing example of what must be done to bring about world organization has been given. It is in the Americas that by far the most important steps, through the development and application of the federal principle, have been taken to unite separate and, in a sense, independent groups into effectively cooperating political units. It is to the Americas that the world of tomorrow must look for guidance and leadership if it is to be a prosperous and a peaceful world. The federal principle is old and well known. No demonstration of its power, however, has ever approached that made, now more than a century and a half ago, by the adoption of the Constitution of the United States of America and its Bill of Rights. Those who are to have the

<sup>4</sup> Jawaharlal Nehru, *op. cit.*, p. 392.

great opportunity and the privilege of taking part in organizing the world of tomorrow for prosperity and for peace should, without delay, read *The Federalist*.<sup>5</sup> From the essays by Alexander Hamilton, James Madison and John Jay contained in that classic volume, may be gained accurate and far-reaching knowledge of the underlying forces which gave to that federal principle its practicability and its power. There also will be found the arguments which made it possible to bring thirteen—now forty-eight—separate political units into a single, closely organized nation under the federal form of government. To be sure, the problems of world organization are in many respects quite different in kind and in character from the problems which had to be dealt with in organizing the United States of America. Nevertheless, from the viewpoint of psychology and of ethics these problems are one and the same.

For many years, in various European countries as well as in the Americas, I have emphasized the fact that what the world of today most needs is the service of another Alexander Hamilton. His wholly exceptional intellectual power, his capacity for constructive and persuasive leadership, and his practical sagacity as a counselor and an administrator have made him the outstanding personality in the history of government. Alexander Hamilton not only clearly grasped the fundamental principles which were at stake in his day, but he had the highest order of administrative capacity in applying those principles to the solution of the practical problems of his time.<sup>6</sup> Without an Alexander Hamilton there could have been no Federal Constitution of the United States drafted in 1787 or adopted in 1789.

It may be that the Alexander Hamilton of tomorrow will not

<sup>5</sup> *The Federalist: A Commentary on the Constitution of the United States*, edited by Henry Cabot Lodge. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1888. 586 pp.

<sup>6</sup> "Alexander Hamilton" in *Why Should We Change Our Form of Government?* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1912. pp. 115-136.

"Alexander Hamilton: Nation Builder" in *Is America Worth Saving?* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1920. pp. 285-313.

"The World Needs Another Alexander Hamilton" in *The Family of Nations*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938. pp. 57-77.

*The Works of Alexander Hamilton* in twelve volumes, Federal Edition. New York: G. P. Putnam, 1904.

be a man of high public office in any land. He may perhaps be an outstanding personality who, without the prestige and authority of public office, has the power to guide and to stimulate public opinion. It was none other than Disraeli who said: "The most powerful men are not public men. A public man is responsible, and a responsible man is a slave.—It is private life that governs the world."

The more that one studies the history of the building of the American nation, the clearer it becomes that it may be justly described as a laboratory experiment in understanding and in solving the world problems of tomorrow. It was the economic problem that grew out of the fact that three separate and independent states had access to Chesapeake Bay and interest in its commerce, which led Hamilton to propose that a conference of all the thirteen states be held in Philadelphia in May, 1787, over which George Washington was appointed to preside. The outlook for a successful result from its endeavors was anything but hopeful. Once again it was Hamilton, who, in an eloquent and persuasive address lasting several hours, put new heart and new life into the delegates who constituted the membership of the Convention. He thereby made possible the result which was reached in the following September. As we all know from the history of the League of Nations, the conditions which now confront those who would go forward to the organization of a federal world are fundamentally the same as those which confronted the Philadelphia Convention in 1787.

Later when the New York State Convention met to pass upon the question of adopting the new Federal Constitution, it was found that a large majority of the delegates were opposed to that action. It was Alexander Hamilton who, in discussion and argument extending over more than two weeks, led those delegates to change their mind and to vote by a majority of three to ratify the Federal Constitution. This is precisely the situation which will confront nation after nation when a plan of federal world organization is offered to the cooperating states for their final action.

These are the essential reasons why the careful and detailed

<sup>7</sup> Benjamin Disraeli, *Endymion*. London: Longmans, Green and Company, 1881. p. 156.



study of the Constitution of the United States, its framing, its ratification, its subsequent operation and amendment will be of greatest possible assistance to those who find themselves face to face with the pressing and highly dangerous problems to be confronted when armed hostilities shall be brought to an end. No American statesman could possibly have foreseen this relationship between the building of a single nation and the building of a federal world, but now there it is—open to all men to read, to study and to understand.

It is truly extraordinary how political relationships and underlying principles of organization repeat themselves. The United States Senate was brought into being in order that the smaller and less populous states like Rhode Island and Delaware should not be made wholly subject to the majorities which would be drawn from the larger states such as Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania and Virginia. This same problem presents itself when world organization is undertaken. A Switzerland, a Netherlands, a Denmark, a Finland, an Austria, a Poland, a Jugoslavia, a Hungary, a Czecho-Slovakia, a Greece and a Korea are just as much entitled to be protected in the preservation of their independence and self-government as are India and China, Germany and France, Italy and Spain, Great Britain and the United States.

It would appear then that the ruling question still is, Can men learn by experience? If not, they must be prepared for still more centuries to tread the long and painful road of lack of understanding, lack of preparation and lack of vision. The ancient Latin maxim, *experientia docet*, is unfortunately not always true. If experience really had taught men, nine-tenths of the world's calamities could have been avoided. It is just because men will not and do not learn by experience, that far-reaching and most difficult problems return to confront them, time and time again and generation after generation.

It may well be that with the coming of the Americas—North, Central and South—into their new position of leadership and power, that which has been done on this side of the Atlantic, during the past four and one-half centuries, will be accepted as guidance for the leaders in the movement to organize the world of tomorrow. If so, those leaders will carry civilization a long



way forward in its march toward the highest ideals of human life and human conduct.

The first and all dominating object of the Americas must be to bring to an end by victory for themselves and their Allies the terrible world war which is now raging. There can be no assurance of safety for the Americas themselves, and no assurance of their ability or opportunity to maintain and to strengthen their own free institutions, until the ruthlessly cruel and barbarous attack upon them has been overcome. Given victory—at whatever cost in manpower and in economic resources—then, and then only, will the Americas have their new opportunity for constructive leadership.

It is quite plain that the world which will follow upon victory will be a truly new world. Neither the social nor the economic systems as they have so long existed—particularly in Great Britain and in France—can remain unchanged. The new and forward-facing world must follow a policy of constructive liberalism. Such will be the best possible protection—perhaps the only protection—for the free peoples of tomorrow against their invasion and overthrow by state socialism and communism.

This is surely the Age of the Americas.

## THE WAR AND HIGHER EDUCATION

EDWIN MIMS

PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH, VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY

LET me say in the beginning that I should like the colleges and universities of America to do all that they can to insure the national defense and to help win a victory over the forces of totalitarianism and despotism. Engineering schools, medical schools, departments of chemistry and physics, R.O.T.C. units, air naval units and every other agency ought to be raised to their maximum energy. If we have to play the game of Hitler let's play it to the limit of our intelligence, skill, enthusiasm and power.

Having said that much, and I mean every word of it, I hasten to add that it will be an irretrievable mistake, a catastrophe, if we do not also keep the essentials of a liberal education constantly before us as worthy of strengthening in every possible way. It is no time for the state or the church or private philanthropy to slacken the efforts to train men and women—leaders if you please—for a fuller and richer life that will stand in times of emergency like this or for the even more difficult times of peace. Educational and cultural armament may be just as necessary as military armament. Along with airplanes and their pilots we need men who can rise to thought's serene dominion. Ships, yes, but also ships that will set sail for unexplored shores and continents of truth. The most explosive bomb is sometimes an idea that appeals to the imagination and heart of the world. Laboratories may discover means of health and enlightenment as well as means of destruction. Let us build impregnable fortresses but remember the song that throbs with the associations of centuries, "A mighty Fortress is our God."

It seems to me there are three ways in which we may provide for national defense: First, let the government take over our institutions and mold them to its heart's desire. That is what was done in 1918 when the S.A.T.C. was set up in all our colleges, when our campuses became armed camps, when every student was enlisted and when all the courses, even those in literature and

NOTE: Address delivered at the Inauguration of President Doak S. Campbell, Florida State College for Women, February 20-21, 1942.

history, were directed towards one aim, that of interpreting the issues of the war. It was a nightmare to any of us who were alive at that time. That is what the totalitarian regimes have done in the present conflict. Or institutions themselves may voluntarily spend all their energies in the preparation for war, cutting out all unnecessary courses, emphasizing applied sciences, technical training, pre-professional and professional training, and directing all other courses to propaganda purposes. A tragic illustration of an all-out program for war may be seen in the fact that the South in 1861-65 was without any higher institutions of learning, that entire student bodies volunteered for service and faculties were left without anything to do. We suffered, and still suffer, from the lack of leaders that might have been trained.

The third way is to work out a compromise between military training and liberal education. In the first World War practically all the students and faculties of Oxford volunteered for the Army and Navy. Professor Allan Nevins, who has just returned from a year's service as Harmsworth Professor of American History at Oxford, tells us that Oxford now has half of its normal enrolment of students, that the university courses are not enfeebled but are as rich and varied as ever, that some of the greatest scholars are giving their lectures in literature, philosophy and history, that, in a word, the graceful spires of Oxford still suggest the search for truth, the lamps of learning still burn, students as of old still look out on the towers whispering the last enchantments of the Middle Ages, the Bodleian still beckons to the eager and inquiring students, and the Oxford Press still publishes the results of research in all departments of knowledge. Thousands of English people who have been subjected to the horrible bombings stay for two weeks in Oxford and Cambridge. When they return they will have felt the serene spirit of Oxford's dreaming spires and quiet cloisters and woodland walks, and from it they will have drawn a new strength and calm that make the winter nights of menace and endurance easier to bear. Nevins adds an important feature of Oxford life: Students work harder and play less; they have far less time for clubs, dramatics, debates; indeed they may be working too hard.

Now if this is what is happening at Oxford where the crisis is so great, what ought to be happening in American institutions

of higher learning? Recently the University of Michigan celebrated the hundredth anniversary of its founding—a university that, like most state universities, has gradually extended its courses to include everything in the way of practical, vocational and professional training. But in this celebration the emphasis was placed on the ideals and function of liberal education. At the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the University of Chicago the largest audience attended a discussion of ethics in modern life and thought; the most colorful occasion was the conferring of honorary degrees on thirty-five scholars who were called pioneers in science and letters, nearly all of whom had achieved distinction in fields of knowledge far removed from technology and warfare. The climax of the celebration was the address of President Hutchins, who said in conclusion: "What our people have a right to expect of universities is moral courage, intellectual clarity and spiritual elevation. Candid and intrepid thinking about fundamental issues is the obligation of all universities in a democracy."

We believe then that the development of liberal education is as imperative now as it ever was; that national defense must take account of liberal education both from the standpoint of the present crisis and from that of the future reconstruction that must follow. But what do we mean by liberal education? Professor T. M. Greene of Princeton has recently submitted to the American Council of Learned Societies a report that seeks to define more clearly what liberal education is, more specifically the relation of the humanities to such a definition. In its analysis of the ideals of our democracy, in its survey of educational trends, in its broadminded consideration of the functions of all departments of learning, in its insistence that the natural sciences, the social sciences and the humanities all have their value in liberal education, it is one of the most important documents of our time. It is especially valuable for the perspective it gives us of the age-long debate between the proponents of liberal education and those of all forms of vocational, professional, technical and highly developed and specialized scientific education.

I may take for granted that you know how with the breakdown of the classical ideal of culture with its disciplines and values firmly fixed, more and more subjects have knocked at the

door demanding entrance—the natural sciences with their impressive exhibits in applied and theoretical science, all modern literatures, the social sciences, vocational courses of every variety. They have all been in accord with the equalitarian theory of democracy, with the utilitarian and materialistic tendencies of the American people, with the practice of mass production, and, above all, with the emphasis of the modern world on the scientific method and on intellectualism and rationalism as the sole determinants of the values of life.

The postwar period greatly accentuated all these tendencies, and made more difficult the championship of liberal education. MacLeish has in two notable addresses confessed the sins of the generation of writers, of whom he was one of the chief, in creating the extreme naturalism, cynicism, mockery of all the virtues of civilized man, and a philosophy of determinism which discounts all individual struggles against the power of social and cosmic forces. There was a time, I hope it has passed, when the wisecrack was considered the acme of human wisdom, when Mencken was the idol of college sophomores and many members of faculties, when the garbage can and the black bats of the Freudian cave were the symbols of art, when the cults of intellectualism and aestheticism were dominating the cafes of Paris and Greenwich Village.

More recently Mortimer Adler of the University of Chicago has put the blame of the postwar period on the college professors. They are both right, but we are more concerned with what happened in the universities. The characteristics of the writers just mentioned were too often those of scholars—not the great scholars but the lesser breed who are not able to distinguish between extreme specialists and humanists, between superstition and faith, between history that finds purpose and value in the long result of time and that sees only the economic structure of society, between a psychology based upon animal and subnormal or abnormal behavior and one based on the aspirations and ideals of man, between the philosophy of Bertrand Russell and that of Whitehead or Eddington, between a teacher of literature who lays the emphasis on the tiddledewinks of knowledge and the vital meaning of the classics in all languages. Above all, in all these subjects there has been what has been called the idolatry of science—

scientific method and technique, with its emphasis on objectivity, detachment, that ignores aesthetic and moral values or that frankly says they cannot be studied scientifically and therefore are not worth consideration.

Now all these tendencies in modern education, greatly magnified in the postwar period, are in danger of being intensified at the present time. It is more difficult to believe in spiritual and aesthetic values than ever before. Vocational education becomes all the more sinister when it takes the form of militarism. Material success as the chief end of man may receive additional emphasis when it is seen so triumphant in a powerful Germany. All that men have said about determinism as a philosophy seems realized in the gigantic mechanized power which we face today. The Locomotive God seems securely enthroned in the Universe, and we must all bow before him. What is the use of even struggling? Defeatism, futility, paralyzes us. What is truth? justice? morality? The true, the good, the beautiful are mere slogans that have no meaning.

Those of us who believe in liberal education have tolerance enough to see that it includes a reasonable study of the natural sciences, the social sciences and the humanities, all in their proportion and all tending to produce an abundant life—a rich life. Pure mathematics, as well as applied, the biological sciences as well as the physical as affording a better basis for philosophy and psychology, history for perspective and background, sociology and economics when not regarded as absolute sciences, and above all philosophy which might again be considered the queen of the sciences. What we all ought to see is that the characteristics of a broadly-educated man are: the discipline of mind that comes from hard work, accuracy and thoroughness; intellectual curiosity and freedom to follow truth wherever it may lead; the power to think with discrimination and balance and poise; the development of the imagination, the sense and appreciation of beauty; the consciousness of the wonder and mystery of the universe and human life.

Inasmuch as the tendencies already noted are apt to obscure or minimize the humanities we need to lay the emphasis there in this discussion. The more science we have the more we need literature. We need to give students what men of all professions have



found either in their colleges or in their own self-education, something that has made them greater than their own business. What Andrew Carnegie found in his enjoyment of Burns, Shakespeare and Wagner; what Justice Holmes found in his reading of Plato; what Sir William Osler found in the great classics which he read the last half hour of every day—his bedside companions he called them—; what Phillips Brooks and Harry Emerson Fosdick received in inspiration and revelation—all this college men ought to receive in the normal course of education. Thomas Jefferson was one of the founders of the Republic, but he was a student of the classics of literature, political science and philosophy, and he accomplished the dream of his life when he built in the hills of Albemarle county the University of Virginia, the buildings of which may have suggested to Poe the glory that was Greece.

The miracle of Lincoln's leadership and style may be partially explained by his assimilation and absorption of four great classics and by his reading even during the darkness of the war books of American humor and poems of patriotism. You cannot realize the shining figure of Winston Churchill today without remembering that he has read and written history; his words have been of such force and beauty that the English speaking world has waited breathlessly for them. May I recall the words of Woodrow Wilson:

Literature opens our hearts to receive the experiences of great men and the conceptions of great races. It airs our souls in the wide atmosphere of contemplation. If this free people to which we belong is to keep its fine spirit, its perfect temper amidst affairs, its high courage in the face of difficulties, its wise temperateness and wide-eyed hope, it must continue to drink deep and often from the old wells of English undefiled, quaff the keen tonic of its best ideals, keep its blood warm with the great utterances of exalted purpose and pure principles of which its matchless literature is full. The great spirits of the past must command us to the tasks of the future.

I am not a pessimist with regard to the status of humane learning and scholarship. I gave only one side of the picture a while ago in commenting on tendencies in American education. All along men have been found to combat some of these extreme tendencies. I appeal from narrow-minded scientists to fifteen of

the most representative scientists who signed a statement in which they said :

The purpose of science is to develop, without prejudice or preconception of any kind, a knowledge of the facts, the laws and the forces of nature. The even more important task of religion is to develop the conscience, the ideals and the aspirations of mankind.

Charles A. Beard, eminent economist and historian, who wrote the charter of the social sciences, has recently said :

Deprived of the certainty which it was once believed science would ultimately deliver, and of the very hope that it can in the nature of things disclose certainty, human beings must now concede their own fallibility and accept the world as a place of trial and error, where only those who dare to assume ethical and aesthetic responsibility, and to exercise intuitive judgment, while seeking the widest possible command of realistic knowledge, can hope to divine the future and mould in some measure the shape of things to come. . . . This conception of the world in contemporary thought brings into a central place of consideration ethics and aesthetics, once discarded, or at least neglected by science and empiricism. No longer can they be regarded as irrelevant or incidental. . . . At its very center is knowledge of good and beautiful things, and conduct which has been brought to realization, if only here and there and in fragmentary form; around this knowledge the imagination of the artist and ethical thinker creates new goods and beauties which effort can bring into being.

In the light of such utterances those who believe in liberal education may well take heart. May this College, under its new leadership, move onward to new power and influence.

## HOW SHALL THE COLLEGE CURRICULUM BE ADJUSTED TO WARTIME CONDITIONS AND NEEDS?

META GLASS

PRESIDENT, SWEET BRIAR COLLEGE

**H**OW shall the college curriculum be adjusted to wartime conditions and needs?

The college curriculum can be adjusted in four aspects to meet wartime conditions and needs: in administration; content; emphasis and balance; time—and each has in it both advantages and pitfalls.

Briefly, advantages in administration would come from the elimination of rigidity of procedure to secure reality of results. The pitfall here is such loose procedure that superficiality and deception as to real gains occur. Most red-tape and some long-honored prerequisites and traditions can go, but full understanding of what is lost and what gained is due the student. He should be able to graduate at one date of any year as well as another, if the work required for that specific graduation is fulfilled. The amount of work allowed a student should be geared to his strength and ability rather than rigidly to a general ruling. Some can and should carry heavier schedules than others and all could probably carry more than previously by omitting some things now done. Advantageous combinations that cut across departmental and divisional lines should be made easy. Many more modifications of administration could be named, and they should all be made to prepare students to contribute to the war effort rather than to facilitate the getting of any specific degree or certificate, whose meaning must be sacrificed to modifications.

The name of the degree or certificate is of least importance but new names for new things are honest. A tiger lily is not by sympathy or speed made a rose, but it can be made, with intelligent sympathy and wise speed, a handsome lily. Most colleges are already wisely modifying curricular administration and,

NOTE: Address delivered before the National Institute on Education and the War, held at the American University, August 30, 1942, under the auspices of the United States Office of Education.

unfortunately, some are confusing the young by calling a tiger lily a rose, or by offering a tiger lily degree with only three petals as a perfect specimen. It is an unnecessary and gratuitous deception.

The curriculum can be modified in content; and, again, almost every college has done this too, by offering new subjects and new combinations of subjects, and by changing existing courses to have more bearing upon the present world condition. Further work in the sciences, applied chiefly but also theoretical, new groupings of the branches of science, many new courses in geography and many new ones in languages, that have not previously been taught, have appeared. The whole field of history, economics, government and sociology is being rearranged to give the student understanding of his own country, a knowledge of what is really involved in different forms of government, both local and world-wide conceptions of economics, industry and trade, and a basis for judging and evaluating means of social betterment.

It is, of course, a false picture that came out of the investigation of American history required in the colleges. The chief difficulties with the conclusions of that investigation lie in the premise that only a course called American history teaches the aspects of the American scene and a kindred implication that only required courses in American history would get the subject before the students. In many colleges no one specific course is required, but the requirements do see to it that aspects of the subjects, basic for an educated person, are covered in one way or another. Better courses in American history and American government and the social scene in America could, without doubt, be offered, and this picture with the false perspective will probably cause many of them to be given, and that is the only important thing for educators. The general public will get a new and easy point at which to rail, and maybe that is good too, since they will probably do less harm venting their indignation over this than over some of the points involved in the pursuit of the war where their indignation may cause an industrial apoplexy. A world view of cooperation among nations is an absolute essential to fight the war and frame the peace, and students ought to be led to recognize the cost to the individual and to the nation of such cooperation. There should be no chance of the war being

hindered or the peace bungled from a sudden unforeseen realization that the demanded cooperation costs material possessions, dear prejudices and cherished independence in some spots.

In offering new courses for the war need colleges should, of course, have reference to their equipment and experience for the new venture. There are enough points at which the colleges can make contributions to the war needs for each one to care for what it can do best, and enough colleges, it seems, to offer the training that is needed. Among the urgent needs is that for new offerings or new orientations in religion and philosophy. In a time of such confusion any persons allowed to think for themselves need standards of religion and philosophy, a real personal religious belief and a growing personal philosophy of what life is for, to direct their various contributions to the war and to the peace to their valid ends.

Now a word about emphases and balance. It has already been indicated that course emphases should and will be changed where they have not previously been correlated with the present scene. Different branches of knowledge must get added emphasis. Mathematics and all the sciences that contribute to waging war have already taken precedence in discussions, in arrangements for financial assistance of students and institutions, and in enrolment of students. We are being thoroughly like ourselves in turning immediately, on recognition of neglect by students of these fields, to concern almost exclusively with them. In such a war as this, changes seem too certain for even Americans to be misled into believing that the pendulum stops at the far end of its arc, and that consequently it is wise to be as one-sided at this extreme as they previously were at another. With students caught so deplorably short in mathematics and science the inference, it seems, ought to shine out that a balanced education is the only safe foundation for rapid change requiring rapid acquirement of special skills when they are needed. It is astounding to think that one single good course in college mathematics, I mean one that covers some higher algebra, trigonometry and calculus, would be enough for much special training in which a constant call comes for students prepared to begin the specialty. Several colleges—notably Barnard, with its advice in excellent form—have prepared for students what they call a “war minor,”

a combination of courses to be taken as free electives in addition to the chosen major which reflects the student's real ability and interest. There are many of these war minors, and they form amazingly adequate foundations for immediate short-time specialization. It would be well for all colleges to formulate such from their own offerings and guide students to broaden their usefulness by taking them.

Of course physical fitness and dependability are at a premium, as they always are at moments of greatest need. The college curriculum, in its content and in its administration, can facilitate both.

The fourth modification of the curriculum to meet war needs is that of time and this is too urgent and obvious to need argument. Education in all its depth and maturity is so badly needed in this time that a large part of our confusion and uncertainty comes from lack of it. Can this education be hastened? I think so, but only to a degree. It can be hastened to the degree that it can be made "to take" in a shorter time. Its incubation period may be shortened by intellectual eagerness, hard work and expert guidance, but a certain time for maturing is still essential. Training for a specific and more limited activity is also desperately needed. This can be hastened more since it covers less and calls for less of the slower process of correlation. Colleges must continue the deeper and better balanced education to whoever can take it and must also give this hastened training to meet the needs of the country. And students must take it and then use it for the country's sake, even though they cripple their education thereby. A good college knows the difference between the two kinds and an honest college sees that its students know the difference too. And a college should stand ready to assist its students who have taken limited training to meet immediate war needs to get the deeper education as soon after the war as it is possible for them to seek it, and to get it at the level of their increased maturity.

The varieties of time shortening now being tried are too numerous to be discussed, and they differ in convenience to particular institutions rather than in fundamental concept. I confess to a special interest in the plan being initiated at Lafayette, because it seems best to face the necessity of time in which to mature and



vacations in which to earn along with a decreased span of months for the degree. On the supposition that the burden of this war cannot be borne by the generation just reaching its later teens, but also that this generation cannot escape involvement in the war before it is over, this plan allows, it would seem, rather adequately for education, special training and speed. Again I feel moved to say that we should speed, but that a truncated course camouflaged to seem like a full pyramid and called one is not worthy of the fine and self-sacrificing young persons to whom some of us are ready, in false generosity, to give it.

Of course I am expected to say how all of this curriculum modification affects women. My eye fell the other day on one of those hodge-podge columns of Question-Answer in a daily paper. Some one in this turbid and breath-taking time cared to know whether the worker ant is male or female. He learned that the worker ant is female, and that she does all of her work with her head. If we go to the ant, presumably woman will be enormously affected by changes in her education. In reality I do not see that she will be affected very differently from the men. What she hurries over she will get less of. She will be as readily deceived as the young male if unwisely patriotic educators tell her a tiger lily is a rose. She ought to be led to broaden her education, especially in the fields of mathematics and science, without cramping it in other fields where she prefers to put her energies. Wherever the country needs her she should sacrifice her longer and deeper education to more immediate training and activity. She may be able, in proportion as she is allowed less strenuous participation in war's devastation, to do more work with her head and contribute genuinely to understanding and evaluating the means for world cooperation and its cost.

She has already so large and so important a role in society to perform that it is to be hoped that her additional work—and she must do all she did before and more too—may be of the kind that makes short-time demands for real dislocations of her chosen contributions to society. Women students will accelerate and dislocate and strive for understanding and an active part in the war, because they are an integral part of the society whose education is being revamped, and the effects upon them will be of the same kind as upon the young men, though women may feel

the effects less in proportion as they may be allowed to keep from the white hot center of the cauldron.

What women get in their education now may largely determine, beyond the possible influence of men's present education, the ideals and attainments possible for the next generation. As the Arabs kept mathematics alive during the Dark Ages so may the women, who are not primarily absorbed into war activity, keep alive the long-time values of learning and culture which belong to all generations.

## NATIONAL PATENT PLANNING COMMISSION

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ADDRESSING himself to an important phase of post-war economic development, especially as the encouragement of creative imagination and research may influence or direct that development, President Roosevelt has recently established the National Patent Planning Commission.

As members of this Commission, the President named Charles F. Kettering, representing science; Owen D. Young, representing industry; Chester Davis, representing agriculture; Edward McGrady, representing labor; and Francis P. Gaines, representing the consumer. The Commission named Conway Coe, commissioner of patents, as permanent secretary.

The duties of the Commission are broadly outlined in the following paragraph from the Executive order:

The Commission is authorized, in conjunction with the Department of Commerce, to conduct a comprehensive survey and study of the American patent system, and consider whether the system now provides the maximum service in stimulating the inventive genius of our people in evolving inventions and in furthering their prompt utilization for the public good; whether our patent system should perform a more active function in inventive development; whether there are obstructions in our existing system of patent laws, and, if so, how they can be eliminated; to what extent the Government should go in stimulating inventive effort in normal times; and what methods and plans might be developed to promote inventions and discoveries which will increase commerce, provide employment, and fully utilize expanded defense industrial facilities during normal times.

The importance of the closing suggestion in this order was emphasized by Secretary Jones of the Department of Commerce who said, in a public announcement of this new effort:

The object of the Patent Planning Commission should be to create a reservoir of new products, or improvements upon existing ones, to which industry could apply its force when arms, ammunition, and other martial supplies cease to be our primary productive aim.

Always a theme of wide discussion and often of wide divergence of opinion, the problem of the patent is thus expanded into a consideration of the devices by which the Government may stimulate not only the inventive capacity but also the utilization of such creative energies. The larger possibilities of a post-war strength, sufficient to prevent any notable sag when the emphasis shifts away from military effort, and adequate to offer new employments programs for the number of men who must live in a world increasingly mechanized, these phases—together with the difficulties of manufacture and marketing of new products—fall under the perspective of the Commission.

At many points, the investigation will touch upon education. One of the principal resources of the nation, viewed from this angle, is the research facility in the educational institutions as a whole. One of the chief reliances for wisdom is in the study by the educators in fields of economics and industrial application. It is a matter of hope, moreover, that the processes of education, even of undergraduate education, can be made more mindful of the economic opportunity represented in the whole sector of the creative industrial imagination.

Naming Dean Andrew A. Potter of Purdue University as executive director, the Commission has divided the field of analysis into a possible two dozen zones of inquiry. In each of these segments of the field, a careful study of existing conditions will be made, guided by consultants who are competent and disinterested. After the Commission has acquainted itself with the precise facts, all groups in America that have interest in the patent system or its consequences—whether that interest be purely technical or actually a type of advocacy—will be invited to present the views represented.

The spirit of the program is simply an effort to find first where we are and then where we should go. The study will require time but the resolution of the Commission has been taken that the conclusions reached shall be based upon the wisest and most careful judgment possible for the cause.

## THE ROLE OF PHILOSOPHY AND THE CLASSICS

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**WHEN** colleges and universities have to be persuaded that learning is worth-while, we may justly ask whether they any longer are colleges and universities. When they do not understand what is learning, and what are suitable ways of attaining it, we are justified in protesting that their reason for existing has been voided. And when they do know what learning is, yet forsake it in favor of things other than learning, or oblige learning to humble itself before these substitutes, then they cease to deserve the trust that has been placed in them.

The evidence before us, in the form of unlettered graduates, semi-literate teachers, and institutional behavior hardly distinguishable from the behavior of a commercial or entertainment enterprise, is quite ample to justify the assertion that a large section of higher education in the United States is no longer college or university education though it goes under that name, and the further assertions that the reason for the existence of some—many—colleges and universities has been nullified, and that our trust in them has been sadly misplaced. The preparation of youths for trades is not the education in any sense intended here. Such preparation is wholly good, so long as it truly prepares and makes no pretension of being more than that. But this is not a task proper to a college or university. The stuffing of youths' minds with masses of facts and figures on matters which require no thought and which may easily be absorbed by an attentive mind without the trouble of a collegiate course, is quite unnecessary, though it is now done in a large portion of typical college education. The thinning and adulteration of subject matter, so that two and three and even more courses are given where material for a single justifiable course does not always exist, is likewise a common occurrence.

Colleges and universities have been deservingly criticized for their exploitation of athletics, but they have been undeservingly spared the more important criticism of allowing education to lapse, and large parts of it to disappear. But we might have

suspected that those who would commercialize and professionalize the games of college boys would also venalize their education. We certainly could not expect them to stand firm for thorough education if presently it happened that something easier and cheaper were offered the youth, by some black-sheep college, with the very same diploma for a reward. We might even expect that as soon as commercialism got into the educational establishment at any point, it would take a strong hold and presently corrupt the whole college so far as learning was concerned. It is unnecessary to speculate on origins, in this connection, however, when results are so close at hand and so familiar to all. The fact is that higher education is now a competitive business, so far as the typical college and university are concerned, and it is quite likely that the competitive motive is at work, invisibly, in some quarters where it is hardly suspected; as, for example, within divisions and between departments in colleges which otherwise seem quite aloof from the world of trade.

Further, this commercialization has not happened overnight. It has been going on long enough to work effects on generations of graduates, from whom have been drawn a good percentage of the present faculties. Consequently the student in 1942 is exposed to educational influences which are by no means the kind to incline him always to learning rather than to specious substitutes. A generation ago a youth thought of a university, with awe and wonder, as the seat of intellectual things, a Pierian fount, *integer vitae*. The present generation would not so much as understand this language. Instead of devoting themselves to the study of things signified by such language, they "study" "business administration," "dress selection," "family living," oratory, recreation (including such sorts and stages as elementary swimming, intermediate swimming and advanced swimming), how to make love, how the Australian bushmen differ from the other savages in killing their enemies, how to sell advertising, how to write headlines, how to make friends and influence people, *etc., etc.* None whatever of this belongs in a college course; not because every last bit of it is valueless, but because anybody having the least pretense of a college education can get it all for himself. The curriculum inflationists have not stopped



with importing from afar quite needless things; they have reached down into the high school and elementary school for subject matter taught there. *Educators* would not do this, but *educational business men* have no scruple against it. So we now see, under the head of what used to be called elocution but now is called speech, courses offered in college which contain the same material that was formerly taught in the first and second grade.

This entire business of trivializing the curriculum produces effects both above and below. Below, in the grades, it is soon realized that no special qualification is needed for college—mere passage through school is a passport to college. (There are high schools in Louisiana, and I believe elsewhere, with hundreds of students, which teach no foreign language—and not much English.) Arriving at college, the student finds he is taught the same thing they taught him in high and elementary school. No doubt he reaches a saturation point, beyond which none of it registers with him any more. Classes are apt to become a mere stint, undergone from compulsion, and the student will soon resemble a factory hand, punching the academic clock as required, and going through the operations like an automaton.

So lamentable a result as this might have been foreseen, and certainly could have been avoided. Not, however, by pursuing the policies higher education has pursued. Not by putting play before work, not by supposing the current events of 1940, for instance, to be educationally more significant than the current events of the fifth century B.C., not by allowing the classics to expire and their vehicles, the ancient languages, to go with them, not by telling ourselves that we can have learning by the mere canvass of what we already know from common experience, not by abandoning the disciplines which call for reflection, and not by capitulating from the high place of intellectual endeavor to a position but slightly different from that of the sharper in the market-place. To prevent this sapping and degeneration of higher education something more than pedagogical theory is needed. This is integrity of professional character. Educators have had much to say about character—character in the students. If their preaching on this head had been addressed exclusively to themselves, it might not have got any better results than the results we see in the students, but at all events it would have

been more appropriately directed. What we mean by character is not apt to be engendered by studies that show none of it, by teachers who lack command, or by colleges that have earned no fame and are known to be not above compromise.

As it takes character to breed character, so it takes learning to get learning—at least for the majority. It takes not merely a storehouse of information in the faculty, though such is of course requisite. More than that, it takes a power of discrimination, of seeing the better distinct from the worse, and why so. What will give us this critical power? There is doubtless no available prescription, but there are some wise safeguards, and a fair number of indications. One thing that will not give it, and something therefore to be shunned, is mental cheapness. Cheapness of morals and manners has likewise a negative relation to it. Cheapness of any sort, with the sole exception of one's purse, is foreign to the fineness of perception meant by the term "discrimination," and against it every educational institution must provide manifold safeguards. Without these, any institution is educationally dangerous.

On the positive side, some things related to the inculcation of the power of discrimination are: (1) a curriculum reflecting the exercise of discrimination in all of its content, (2) exacting demands in every course given, (3) original and forceful minds—never the mere pedantic time-server—to conduct the courses, (4) hospitality to ideas always, (5) a community of students devoted to learning, first and last, and therefore certain to influence one another favorably.

What to avoid and what to require, in terms as broad as these, is hardly a question. Like comes from like, effects cannot rise higher than their causes, nothing comes from nothing—many a wise saying contains truth sufficient to guide educational policy in all such matters. This, too, is clear enough. The wonder is only that so large a part of education should not heed so simple and clear a guide. Shall we suppose that the educators, who cannot be thought ignorant of elementary pedagogical principles like these, have knowingly elected not to give us education? Must we say they find it more profitable, in some ungodly sense, to offer a misleading substitute? Or that they wish for better but the times are against them? Or that they are engaged in a

competitive business that drives them to sacrifice the best there is in education? If the answer is in any instance "yes," it is a confession of failure, and this would signify the need of remedial measures all around.

But suppose we err in indicting the educators so broadly. Let us assume that lessons in typewriting, radio speaking or advertising methods are just as good and important as lessons in Greek, the history of philosophy or the philosophy of history. But this is simply an intolerable assumption, which could only be made in ignorance of Greek and history and philosophy, or in some perfidious abnegation of them. And yet charitableness of mind can go no farther than to venture this concession—and reason and experience can do nothing other than repudiate it. The whole case for educational mediocrity winds up in a reduction to absurdity.

But, seeing that we are in the midst of both mediocrity and absurdity, in education, what is it that classical studies and philosophy can do about it? I will only speak for philosophy, knowing that the classical studies have others far better prepared to state their case. Perhaps it will be of interest, regarding the classics, however, to observe that when a high military officer in Washington was called upon lately to say what should be taught the soldiers, he named just one thing—Greek. Also, when a prominent officer of the Association of American Medical Colleges was asked for an opinion, he stated that it would be far better for students intending to study medicine, to study Latin and Greek as a preparation, rather than sciences. On the other hand, a New Orleans newspaper a few days ago contained, in one of the mental analysis skits so popular in recent years—a species of analysis, by the way, which rarely fails to give the suggestion of something psychotic in the analyst—it contained a picture of a neo-barbarian shoveling the last bit of dirt upon the grave of Greek and Latin, and accompanying the picture was a comment which quoted, with hearty endorsement, an utterance of that renowned lawgiver Will Durant which said that Greek and Latin were now quite dead, and what a fine thing it was, since they were absolutely worthless. Greek and Latin are perhaps worthless to persons whose intellectual range is much limited, but to those who are not that unfortunate they are incalculably valuable, if only as teaching them their own language.

But now as to philosophy. The range of this subject is almost the same as knowledge itself, and it would not be difficult, I think, to show that the goal of all great departments of knowledge is a goal identical with some portion of philosophy. For brevity's sake, we may take the distinctive nature of philosophy to be reason, plus the grounds and implications of reason. One branch of philosophy is wholly concerned with the forms and operations of reason. This is of course logic. But logic is soon seen to involve much more, especially metaphysics. The two are indissolubly connected with yet another branch, epistemology, or theory of knowledge. It would be perhaps not difficult to show that each considerable branch of science is really an application of some portion of these divisions of philosophy, and by no means a department of knowledge independent of philosophy. The same is true in other directions, including art, politics, religion, *etc.*

Let us consider a few examples. A man of common sense who has no scientific training is satisfied that objects dropped from a point above the ground will invariably fall to the ground. If he is asked to explain this, he probably will say they *must* fall. But if again asked to explain why they must, he will probably be puzzled, not having considered the question before in his life. Moreover, he will most likely form the opinion that the question is nonsensical and idle, and the questioner a foolish fellow. The scientific man, on the other hand, will behave differently, at least for a time. He can answer the first question, Why do the objects fall, by citing us the law of falling bodies. But if asked further about this law, *i.e.*, its status with respect to phenomena and to reason, and, more especially, if asked how he knows a law when he never has seen or touched or in any fashion sensed one, he, too, will incline to think we are foolish for asking. If informed that inasmuch as his science is deeply involved in laws and principles, according to his own exposition of it, and that a person desiring knowledge of nature will surely want to know more about these, he will probably say the way to find out is to study more science. In case we might show him that this would only postpone the question, he would respond, if he acted true to form, by looking us over as if we were pitiable ignoramuses, or else by looking at

his watch and announcing he had an engagement. In an extremity we might detain him long enough to remark that it would seem we had here a problem of metaphysics, that laws and principles, the very groundwork and results of science, were not physical but metaphysical. But in that case we must be on guard, because there is a great chance that the mere mention of this word metaphysics will throw the scientist into such a pitch that our dignity and safety will be imperiled. Having gone so far, however, we might venture to be a bit *risqué*, and offer the opinion that the laws of nature are really laws of reason, epitomized in our reason, and that mind—the scientific mind—only reads them into nature, or, as Kant said, gives them to nature. Let us not stop, but take the lead ourselves. What is the significance of so much mathematics in science, of so much demand for system, order, reason and even the resolution of whole sciences into deductive systems? Phenomena don't demand this, the senses do not, work-a-day experience cares little about it, and one can enjoy life without giving it a thought. Yet on the other hand, if we do give it some thought, it is difficult to see how we can avoid further examination and reflection regarding it. To do such is philosophy. Not to do such, although it may be passable science, is only a scrap—nothing more than the beginning stage of knowledge. There are many scientists who know this perfectly. Knowing it, and acting upon it, some have developed great philosophic interest and have become eminent philosophers.

Let us take a case of a different kind, from literature. Literary scholars, I believe, separate into the historical kind and the critical kind, the first kind devoting themselves to validating literary texts, accounting for their production and their success or failure, giving all the overt data about them in an objective, scientific manner. The critical scholar on the other hand, scorns that type of labor and concerns himself with questions like: Is it a good poem or play, is it true to life, should it be true to life, is it superior to another one given, and how are we to tell? Let us confine ourselves to the critical scholar. The questions he presents are certainly questions that come to a reflective student's mind, and to some minds they come insistently. To answer them it is evident that we need both breadth and depth of knowledge, as well as sharp analytical powers. When we ask, for instance, whether a given poem is good, we desire not merely someone's



impression or some expression of his likes or dislikes. We need to know why it is good or not; that is, the concepts or truths epitomized in the word *good*, and whether they fit with the given case at hand. But this is now a matter of much enlarged scope. We have to say what is truth and grades of truth, and what are values and their grades. These are philosophical questions in the main, but they are also scientific and historical questions. The same eventuates in the case of each of the critic's other questions; that is to say, they are questions which pass out of the sphere of poetry *per se* and into other spheres. There are indeed peculiar questions which remain for the critic, such as the determination of distinguishing marks of the poem, the sensitive discernment and analysis of qualities in it which would escape the rest of us perhaps, the trial of the poem by any shall we say techniques, or indeed technologies, which the critic may have invented to justify his office. But the grand general questions which the critic attempts to answer are not technical only; they are questions far larger, and involving ultimate principles of knowledge and existence. A reasonable man would therefore suppose that the critical scholar would require his students to gain wide knowledge in philosophy, science and history. In this he would be profoundly mistaken. But thereafter he would not be surprised, I fancy, when he saw how superficial, uncertain and capricious is so large a portion of what is called literary criticism.

One other example may be of interest, although, being from the arts, it does not differ much from that of the literary scholar. This is an example of the artist, or art student. He, too, studies art and nothing else unless his school by some chance requires it. Art is for him a matter of practice and, very probably, self-expression. The way to learn to be a painter is to paint—this is what he calls his philosophy. This doctrine implies that he is a genius, and within him are embedded truth, individuality, style, *etc.*, which only require the progressive outlet which the practice of painting will give. Or else it implies that painting is something apart, and we have no check to it, no criteria by which to judge it. Or else, further, that the artist is an originating spirit, a little demiurge, answerable to no one. Now I certainly do not pretend to deny any of this—in fact, I should far rather defend it, or at least as much of it as concerns the uniqueness and the power of origination which it attributes to the artist. But



uniqueness and originality are not everything perhaps, and, moreover, they do not utterly elude and defy our understanding. A painting, even of the most extreme surrealist style, is intelligible, and thoroughly so. In looking at it, we do not adjourn our minds and use only our eyes and emotions. We constantly make rational demands and go upon rational anticipations—and we may brook no contradictions. Paintings that have nothing to present in gratification of this requirement, and only concern our senses, are almost certain to be mediocre, while those that seem to violate the requirement of intelligibility and to glory in derangement, are less than mediocre. It is likely, then, that the student who is brought up on the art pedagogy of crying out, so to speak, will have very much to say in his pictures? I think not. A very slight inspection is all that we need, to realize the poverty of many a work. From nothing comes nothing. If no thought in the painter's mind, no learning, no range of insight, then none in his pictures. So we should feel justified in expecting the art student to inform himself widely, to think deeply and to gain as catholic an education as he can. We should expect this of him professionally, as an artist, to say nothing of expecting it of him as an educated man. But we are rather alone in this. Art schools do not expect it, and least of all require it, and their students would not understand if we broached it to them directly. To be an artist, it seems, one does not have to be educated.

Liberal education is the groundwork for high competence and achievement in science, literature and art. Even if the object of education were only to train practitioners, there still would be a need of learning, for without it the practitioner would be unprepared to exercise his full talent. Within a week I have heard a biologist remark that it pleases him to think that by the time the youths now preparing to study medicine are finished with their training he will be dead and will not have to submit to being put to death by the incompetents they are destined to become, and I have also heard a classicist say, regarding the same type of student, that it is sad to think of the next generation, for they will be at the mercy of medical men who never learned to think and who therefore cannot be trusted to understand and treat their illnesses. Medical schools and other professional schools also, by their insistence on more liberal education as a condition of the admission of students, have stimulated the

liberal arts somewhat—more indeed than should have been necessary to make the liberal arts colleges realize they still have a reason for existing. It is conceivable that if the liberal arts colleges had shown a proper comprehension of their own place, or let us say even as much comprehension of it as the professional schools are showing, instead of so readily yielding to the temptation to let themselves be thinned out and subtly converted into playhouses and trade schools, they would be now in far stronger position than they can hope to be through abandoning themselves to shady compromise.

But liberal arts colleges are by no means mere "service" establishments, instituted to subserve trade and professional schools. It would seem no credit to them to say they help to make able physicians, lawyers and so on. Only so far as they confer enlightenment, giving to the world learned and cultivated minds, have they any credit. It makes only the smallest difference, that the graduate of a liberal arts college becomes a rich man or a poor one, a famous one or one unknown. But it makes all the difference whether he realized while there the potentialities of mind and spirit with which he was gifted. If he did this, if, that is, he was given possession of his full powers, then he attained freedom, or at least the means to freedom; which from one viewpoint is also salvation. This is an achievement we cannot compare with any other which education is capable of, and which no liberal arts school worthy of its name can ever allow to be superseded. *Veritas vos liberabit*—the truth shall make you free; free whether rich or not rich, and free whether the political system under which you live is that of democracy, fascism, communism or whatever you please; free also whether you live in a machine age or a feudal one; for a free man is not the mere child of his age, nor the mere echo and predicate of other men, but an entire self-contained kingdom.

The making of such a man is entirely a matter of informing, enlightening and exercising his mind. For this, the heavily adulterated offerings so widely found in contemporary education are no good whatever, but rather harmful. The best that we have is alone appropriate, and only the best will produce the fairest effect. A very large section of what the intellectual and educational best contains is occupied by the classics and philosophy.

## THE BISECTED A.B.

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THE proposed operation on a degree which has done yeoman service since the thirteenth century has already provoked much discussion. Its history, and the changes which have developed during its long existence, have been thoroughly overhauled. The contents and character of the four-year liberal arts college course have been challenged, not only in connection with the present suggestion that it be reduced in extent, but on the ground that American conditions are altered and that an earlier start in graduate or professional study should be available. The application of the German Ph.D. program to the third undergraduate year, the function of the junior college, and the attitude of the public that education should be more closely allied to life-experience, brought the debate into sharper relief. And the decision of the University of Chicago, to grant this Bachelor's degree at the close of a two-year observation and survey of the main fields of learning, makes the affirmative and the negative sides stand out unequivocally.

There is, accordingly, no need to invoke the shades of our colonial colleges, the best of which admitted men to an *ad eundem* at Oxford or Cambridge, in preparation for the church or the bar or the forum; there is no news value in comments upon the European school system, adequate (before the war) for placing pupils beyond our college freshman status. The vital issue is not acceleration—a reasonable procedure under certain circumstances, as in the present crisis. For purposes of winning the war, the speeding up of technical and scientific skills and a general “all-out” attitude, are justifiable policies. But when democratic freedom prevails again and the dictators are laid in the dust, it is questionable whether education should rush along at such a rate of speed, or whether an enriched is not better than a curtailed curriculum. The danger lies in *abbreviation*. And the immediate question is, whether we shall follow President Hutchins in this amputation of the traditional undergraduate degree.

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Since we have before us a characteristically American situation, streamlined and carried over from the mass-production procedure of business, neither the hallowed past nor the critical future should interfere with an impartial common-sense view. We must supply the needs of a coming period when costs will be a vital criterion, when the business of the country will be confronted with new issues, and when the cultural content will be sifted over for the benefit of another generation. It is perfectly clear that in the present emergency we need strong, quick-acting and rapidly-trained men. But after the threat of death to all the valued traditions of our Western and American civilization shall have been removed, the good life in a post-war world must be resumed. This good life means leisure, beauty, tolerance, individual development, as well as despatch and technical skills. The education which is to produce such results must be inclusive of both the ideal or traditional elements of our past and an incisive mastery of technique. No slide-rule will settle it. The typical fraternity loafer will be a rudimentary survival; but the need for cumulative contacts and exchange of ideas in a college community will still remain. The sharp contrast between work and leisure will give way to a philosophy where work is a pleasure and leisure an opportunity. Cultural and vocational studies must both play their parts. The concentrative and the distributive courses must be represented. Mr. Lynn White, Jr., in the *Journal of the History of Ideas* for April, 1942, has most truly remarked: "In our western culture every activity maintains its vitality not by the solution of its problems but by preserving bi-polarity between irreconcilables, and by living in the resultant magnetic field." (p. 152.)

The social and political program of the future as certain of our leading statesmen have indicated for the United States, and as the British Labor and Conservative parties have proclaimed, with the blessing of their churches, will call for many simplifications. The Atlantic Charter will mean plainer living, religious and social cooperation, mass production in the machinery of existence, greater leisure for personal satisfactions, and a guidance-controlled assembly-line from the first elementary grade for all through university specialization for those who deserve it. This New Deal will be a New World, whether we like it or not. No

Arnold-Huxley debate on Culture versus Science will be in order. In such an atmosphere the purely-scholar type advocated by Mr. Hutchins could not live by books alone. Nor could the sharp-eyed scientist, who is brilliantly helping to win the war for freedom, live in a post-war period of hustle and shop and laboratory and rapid stream-lining. There cannot be the complete disengagement of an Athenian discussion-group, nor yet the feverish mechanical pace of an industrialized world rushing rapidly Heaven knows whither.

The statement by representatives of the junior colleges—that they prefer to function as terminal post-graduate additions to the high-school course, and as occasional spring-boards to advanced standing in four-year colleges, rather than invading baccalaureate territory for purposes of a diploma—comfortably narrows the field of discussion. We may thus ask three questions: first, whether it is the function of the American high school to arrange its last two years in such a way that more adult subject matter be included. Secondly, we wonder whether, if the answer to the first question is negative, enough material worthy of an A.B. degree could be acquired by the end of the sophomore year. And thirdly, those who believe that graduate or professional work, involving highly specialized training and demanding fundamental tools for its proper application, will need to be convinced that an abbreviated preliminary training will suffice.

The writer of this article desires to record himself as in favor of three "theses": that the high school should not be "stream-lined" any further, that the four-year liberal arts college, with its last two years often overlapping into the preliminaries of graduate study, should be left in its present framework, and that specialized study should begin only when the student is ready to assimilate it. The high school, with its 250 different courses or combinations of courses, should not subject the adolescent learner to a premature adulthood. The four-year college (which for many decades has permitted graduation in a shorter time) can continue to offer a cultural and vocational mixture; for it is the heir of the seventeenth-century British university, modified by the technical and modern elements gradually adopted as the Industrial Revolution progressed. And we are surprised that the protagonist of the



two-year A.B., an ardent advocate of the great cultural tradition, would rush a student through the general fields of learning at such express-train speed.

Let us consider the first "thesis"—the American secondary school. From a set curriculum in the eighteenth century, containing not more than three subjects of major dimensions, we have reached a stage of high vocational variation, progressive methods and an astonishing degree of "life-experience" study, where almost every occupation or trade is foreshadowed in the program, open to choice under vocational guidance in the earliest 'teens. The content of learning common to all pupils is vastly diminished, from the days when the tasks were continuous and almost uniform. It is this variety, curiously enough, which has prompted the survey or observation course in the early years of college; because the pupils had less cultural ground on which to meet than was the case fifty years ago. It is also responsible for the progressive groupings of related subjects, in an endeavor to establish such a common ground at an earlier age. The complexity of modern life has led the public to believe that an early foretaste of some specialty is essential to success in that specialty in later years. And some of this is wise; for if a pupil is indulged in such a preliminary to the extent of one quarter of his time, with interest aglow and consequent application, the general material with which an intelligent college man or woman should be familiar will be accepted, even against the grain, as a vital necessity. But the school should not be dragooned into more adult fields unless the pupil is markedly ready; a good example of error in this regard is the passionate study of the combustion-engine on the part of some mechanically inclined boy, without the cumulative drill of well-taught mathematics, and with the consequent tragedy of exclusion from any engineering school. The Army and Navy, reacting to the needs of the present crisis, are rectifying this situation on a common-sense basis. They have called the attention of educational groups to the poverty of our high-school offerings in mathematics. They have pointed out that in a certain selective examination a majority of candidates failed to pass the arithmetical reasoning section, that only ten per cent of the candidates had been exposed to elementary trigonometry, and that less than one-quarter of the group had taken more than one and a half



years of mathematics in high school. The school, therefore, should contract rather than expand its offerings! We have made the mistake of "taking all knowledge to be our province," as if the bridge-building expert could burst into flower at the age of fourteen, or as if the linguist could dazzle his freshman French instructor after a course in "general language" in the ninth grade. We believe that a scientist cannot profit by a four-year, or a two-year, liberal arts or engineering course without his mathematics through trigonometry, and that the student of literature will be a bungler without a three- or four-year sequence of a foreign language.

Consequently, while a few schools will continue to prepare pupils for a diploma which is equivalent to completion of a freshman year, and while others will send to college boys and girls who need elementary grounding before they are capable of higher education, it is fair to say that the secondary school should not be burdened with any responsibility for abbreviating the period introductory to specialized or graduate study. There is a distinct danger in the loss of fundamentals; and if the reduced time or the heavier burden in the adolescent stage means a more superficial acquaintance with the essentials of mathematics or science or a foreign language or history, or involves a garbled preparation in English reading and writing skill, the situation becomes serious. We are entirely in harmony with a pupil's completing his school, or his college or his university, two years earlier than his next-door neighbor; but we deprecate any omission of the prerequisites to mastery. The details of promotion will follow logically if the process is democratically selective, thorough in subject-matter knowledge, and definite in the purposes outlined. And if one looks forward with prophetic vision to the Brave New World when many more hobby-subjects will form an individualized fringe in the curriculum, there is all the more reason to advocate a deliberate and well-rounded period preliminary to college entrance or to business apprenticeship.

If, then, it is correct to assume that the school should be spared the burden of additional adult training; if the junior college feels emphatically that its duty lies in the previously mentioned terminal offerings, the liberal arts college must carry the load. And why not? We confess ourselves in sympathy with President

Cowley's Conclusion.<sup>1</sup> The Middle Ground is vitally important. We see no reason for avoiding the blend of near-university or university work which occupies the climax of the undergraduate stage—mixed in such a way that the upperclassman could sample many fields if he chose, or employ his time in reducing the amount of research required for an advanced degree—in medicine, or law, or business administration, or any other final educational accolade.

In the program of a young man or woman who will be completing an education in the year 1950, the college period will be a cumulative process rather than an interval marked off from school on the one side and professional training on the other. It will be *terminal* for many, and in many cases it will come in itself to a professional climax. Others will still explore as much as possible throughout the four years. Those who are qualified may acquire the Bachelor's degree on an accelerated (but not an abbreviated) basis if they so desire. The teacher, lawyer, physician, research scientist or government expert may focus on his concentration field in the junior or even sophomore year; but the process should be elastic and voluntary.

The survey course, however, which is recommended as a companion-process to the truncated A.B., is an inadequate pattern of education. It is bound to be superficial, even in the hands of a great lecturer. It puts out of court the possibility of learning a new foreign language thoroughly, or of mastering the continuous and concrete details of mathematics. It skips genially through literary masterpieces as the sight-seer in former days used to "do" a European art gallery. It offers glittering generalities in science without the habit of painstaking investigation needed for introductory courses in physics, or chemistry, or biology. One can understand why a long distance reading course in any fundamental subject is useful for extension purposes or for the business man who can find only an hour or so a day to improve his cultural stock. The observation or survey method of learning belongs with the adult who wishes to fill in the gaps of his previous education, or to advance in a field auxiliary to his hobby. There is no useless form of education if it is earnestly pursued, whether by individuals or by classes. But since the problem at

<sup>1</sup> *The Atlantic Monthly*, June, 1942.

issue refers either to the complete training of a genuinely educated person, or the permit to enter a particular field of research, one thinks immediately of most occupations as suffering if they are entered upon by persons not equipped with certain fundamental tools—linguistic, scientific, historical, logical—each involving at least a preliminary expertness. And this the survey courses, especially if they form eighty per cent of the students' work for the two years following a school diploma, will not accomplish.

The liberal arts college must take the responsibility both for the research specialist and for the person who will stop short of that point but will possess an understanding of the spiritual, social and economic forces in the world. It must equip with a basic culture both the technician and the man of general interests. It must turn out men and women who are acquainted with many fields and yet have dug deep in at least one. It must not surrender to the immediate demands of vocational preparation, and yet it must acquaint the student with the types of things and persons likely to swim into his ken. It must teach the student that science alone is no panacea, and culture alone is no talisman. One questions whether two years of survey or observation courses can prepare a person for either specialization or general living. They are too wide for the former, offering no skilled tools for future use; they are so general that a five-foot shelf would be equally valuable, provided the young business man guaranteed himself three evenings of home reading or three nights per week in an extension class.

We wonder whether the A.B., bisected to two years, even with the stuffed-out high school equipment which we deprecate, could be defined as adequate preparation for research work. It is interesting but not relevant to introduce a comparison with the pre-war German university system, and to define it as an undemocratic affair. Our graduate schools are of course modelled on the German idea, for many reasons; but the parallel holds only in the graduate years *per se* and not in the undergraduate course. The reduced fees of our state universities and the scholarships offered by private foundations are in line with the selective doctrine promulgated by Jefferson; and many critics have felt that American educators erred in turning too many students loose in the re-

search fields, encouraged beyond their capacity. There is a sharp contrast between the German youth who took up a trade on finishing the *Volksschule* and the American who, whatever his financial status, finds a career open to his talents, with a professional degree as a reward for work of distinction. In fact, if the A.B. degree were to be abbreviated, the non-professional student would be more sharply differentiated from the specialist than is now the case under the compromise system of a mixed four years of general plus specific training. The red herring trail of undemocratic danger may be erased from the debate-records. The countless surveys undertaken throughout the United States indicate that secondary and college educators are reaching out increasingly to welcome all types of adolescent; and there is no basis for arguing that the cumulative selection of the best students is an undemocratic procedure.

While the time intervals of acquiring degrees are variable according to the individual, it is quite another thing to shorten the amount or depth of the work to be done. With only two years, especially of predominatingly survey courses, there is not time for the preliminaries to graduate work. One will need, for all scientific, engineering and statistical purposes, a profound knowledge of mathematics, a reading ability in one and preferably two foreign languages, and sufficient acquaintance with history, literature, government and economics to understand and promote the welfare of the post-war world. One will need also a sense of not being hurried—so that one's contacts and associations, so increasingly important with the rapidity and closeness of the world itself—so that these contacts and comparing of notes may go on with the proper assimilation and "seepage." Incisive diagnosis, a sense of analytical values, does not come after rapid flights through vast fields of knowledge. For the diplomat or the civil servant, or the editor and political expert, the historical and linguistic material of several foreign countries (the Far East increasingly) must be at his fingers' ends. Our isolationist policies, fatal to world understanding, have made the American task difficult. One might run on through various other professions; but the thought constantly recurs to the minds of those who regard America as the "physician of the Iron Age," as follows: our national craze for stream-lining, for quickly acquired tech-

niques, for mass production, for large-scale labor-saving devices in all forms of enterprise, for rapid economic results—is excellent for purposes of winning the war, but is not rich or deep enough for the long-distance policies of post-war living. This theme has been correctly emphasized, from Thomas Jefferson to Henry Adams to Walter Lippmann. And it ties in accurately with the education of the future leader.

It is for all these reasons that the writer of this article would amplify and enrich educational offerings rather than abbreviate them. A critic of American music, speculating on the lack of great creative works by our native composers, has referred the difficulty to the "mediocrity of the human stuff that betrays itself when the attention is transferred from artifice and technique to the *core* that they surround." And if the students of the next two decades are to be supplied with satisfactory ideas and procedures, they must be given no quick-lunch food. It is only the permanent fundamentals which can be the basis for fresh symbols.

## THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM AND CHICAGO<sup>1</sup>

GORDON KEITH CHALMERS

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**I**N 1884 when President Eliot had finally persuaded the Harvard Overseers and faculty to extend the elective system to freshmen, the old definition of the bachelor's degree was destroyed—in Harvard. The radical change, for which Mr. Eliot had labored since 1869, was sufficiently in keeping with the advanced philosophy of the time to commend itself to the faculties and presidents of the other colleges, and soon the shot fired at Cambridge was heard 'round the academic world. In January, 1942, a majority of the faculty of the University of Chicago, under the leadership of a strong-minded president, re-defined the bachelor's degree—for Chicago. It is likely that if the change involves philosophical principles in keeping with the new thinking of the decade the other important institutions of the land will adopt it.

It is easier to draw analogies between two events both in the past than between a historical event and one happening before our eyes. Perhaps the shocking decision of the Chicago faculty is not really revolutionary at all; perhaps it involves no radical change in principle. Perhaps, if it does involve a principle, as President Hutchins says and hopes, the idea is too alien to the imagination of the time, and the academic world will not know how to understand it, much less follow it.

The revolutionary principle at Harvard which re-minted the whole academic coinage was the new proposition that any subject of study is as good for a boy as any other and that the boy himself is the best judge. When President Eliot advocated this dangerous and subversive doctrine, the respectable thinkers in the universities and colleges knew that we had gone off the gold standard. Today the respectable thinkers are certain that Mr. Hutchins has

<sup>1</sup> I wrote down these reflections early in the summer; in October a member of the University of Chicago Senate read the manuscript at my request and made notes on recent developments of the new bachelor's degree, referring me to two recent Chicago bulletins, the announcement of courses for 1942-1943 and "The State of the University," September 10, 1942. Many of his suggestions appear here as footnotes.



driven us off gold and that Gresham's Law will speedily work its awful effect.

The new faculty rule at Chicago states that the bachelor's degree will be awarded on the completion of examinations for which the student will normally require but two years of the present college course to prepare. The whole plan envisages a course leading to the bachelor's degree beginning at the present junior year of high school and extending for four years, to be followed by a three-year course leading to the master's degree. In fact, it involves a younger bachelor's course, not a shorter one, and a longer course to the master's degree. Thus, it will not be until he earns his master's degree that the Chicago student will come out even with his brother who attends Harvard or any other college or university. He will start college when he is fifteen or sixteen; he will be graduated B.A. when he is nineteen or twenty. His whole course in college, says Mr. Hutchins, that is, his whole four-year course to the bachelor's degree, will contain no vocational subjects and no electives.<sup>2</sup> The subjects in which he will be examined at the end of four years will all be prescribed, and the prescription will apply alike to all students, regardless of their whims, deficiencies or aptitudes.

The three significant changes achieved at least on paper by the new plan have, in fact, long been sought by many of the most vigorous and imaginative college teachers throughout the country. It is generally accepted that better use could be made of the last two high school years by students definitely headed for college. Notably the school preparation in language, mathematics and English has been weak and could probably be more effectively taught than at present by instruction in groups all of whom are

<sup>2</sup> Since last January the University Senate and the College faculty have exacted rules defining two degrees, the B.A. and the Ph.B. in terms of the younger four-year course. I judge that decisions respecting the B.S. are still to be made. The new Ph.B. does permit some electives in fulfillment of the requirements; the requirements for the new B.A. are all specific but a student has the option of adding some electives in addition to fulfilling the requirements. At Chicago the College course leads to the bachelor's degree. What other institutions call junior, senior and graduate years in Chicago are referred to as the Upper Division. "Electives are not required for the Bachelor of Arts degree, but elective subjects passed with a grade of C or better will be certified by the College as available for upper divisional credit."

headed for a certain amount of college work. The best secondary schools of the country probably do this job better than the worst colleges and certainly as well as the best; but the great unevenness of preparation, school to school, has made it necessary for colleges to introduce more and more school instruction into the freshman and sophomore years. Admiral Nimitz's recent statement about the alarming lack of simple arithmetical preparation among candidates for naval commissions points to a condition common to the training, or rather, the lack of it, in how to handle the two sets of symbols essential to any kind of higher study: numbers and letters.

If they could have them for a sufficiently long period, many college teachers would welcome admitting students younger than at present. Second, college teachers for a long time have harbored misgivings about the elective system. Courses are chosen by students for the same reason that advertised commodities are purchased. The Freshman adviser knows that he knows better than his advisee what is good for him, but all the world, of late, has hearkened to the child, and who is one professor to pit his judgment against an eager boy? Finally, instructors of honors work are aware that a very able student may profitably spend more time than at present he is permitted with the central main propositions of some one large subject such as chemistry, broadly defined, history, or American literature. The best honors students in America do not do research nor try to make discoveries, but they begin to get a mastery of a whole large subject. The most they can devote to this exciting and very rewarding kind of study is two years, usually not two undistracted years. Three such years, with no distractions at all would make it likely that the student indeed masters his subject, thus restoring meaning to the term Master of Arts.<sup>3</sup>

Whether any large number of college instructors in the country have seen in the new rules at Chicago a step in the direction of achieving these desiderata I do not know. The presidents of

<sup>3</sup> For example, the English department of the University has been developing for some years a three-year course of advanced studies beginning with the Junior year of College and leading to the M.A. A forthcoming article by David Daiches in *College English* will describe the new English M.A. at Chicago.

many of the institutions, and the officers of most of the educational associations have seen in the Chicago plan nothing but an invitation to weaker institutions to cut in half the work for the B.A., under pressure from a public which notices that the Chicago faculty is bright enough to make Johnny a B.A. when he is nineteen, and what is wrong with the Siwash faculty, that they must keep his brother laboring away and paying his fees until he is twenty-one?

The objections to the younger four-year B.A. at Chicago are four. First, for the immediate future, at least, the degree will in fact be a two-year degree, because the University of Chicago does not now have sufficient enrollees at the level of the junior year of high school to permit it to require students to enter very young, and it will continue to accept them after graduation from secondary school. Even if Chicago succeeds in increasing the number of young entrants, the secondary schools won't like to lose their most interesting students, other colleges will not be likely to imitate the plan because they will not want to think of themselves as responsible for school work. On Chicago's behalf, it might be said that those objections are really not Chicago's worry, and if the faculty thinks it likely that Chicago can attract able young students they certainly are entitled to take their own risks.<sup>4</sup>

The second objection is that the award of the bachelor's degree at nineteen is not necessary to the success of the instructional principles involved in the Chicago plan. But evidently a majority of the Chicago faculty, where discussion of the whole scheme has been active for a dozen years, consider the action of last January the next logical step.<sup>5</sup> There is no sin in making progress in

<sup>4</sup> To start the Autumn quarter of 1942 the four-year College at Chicago (which begins at the junior year of secondary school and accepts into advanced standing transfers who have been graduated from secondary school) has 35% more beginners (at the level of junior in secondary school) and the largest number of transfers into its third year in history. I am told that if dormitory space had permitted, the four-year College would have accepted twice as many beginners as were admitted.

<sup>5</sup> In January the vote of the University Senate authorized the College, "which controls the four years from the beginning of the conventional Junior year in high school to the end of the conventional Sophomore year in College, to award the Bachelor's degree 'in recognition of general education as redefined by the College faculty.'" The vote of the Senate was 63 to 48.

wartime. We all are inclined to do in times of crisis the things which over the years we have been coming to regard as essential. It might with justice be argued that if the conventional high school and college years from ages fifteen to nineteen are wastefully organized it is downright wicked not to try something better in a time when those years become especially precious to the boy and girl and to the nation.

The third objection is that the new Chicago bachelors will be inclined to enter professional school immediately after the B.A., thus cutting off two years of what otherwise might have been liberal college study. Close examination of the courses elected in most colleges, including the best, and scrutiny of the motives which the colleges offer undergraduates to determine their choice of courses will reveal this argument to be specious. The current system in effect deprives the potential doctor or chemist or engineer or even the potential business-school student of liberal studies as early as his sophomore year and sometimes as early as the freshman year. "Education" students are now deprived of a considerable fraction of their chance at a liberal education. This is true because the liberal colleges have been praising themselves step by step during the past twenty years for the glorious retreat—a retreat from the view that their job is to provide liberal education. The retreat has been forced on them by two causes: the requirements of the professional schools, who hold the whip hand because even the poor ones are crowded and can turn away applicants; and the illusion spread abroad by personnel offices in universities and colleges that it is a wholesome thing for a young man to have a purpose in life and that the most compelling purpose is the choice of a profession while he is a sub-freshman. The former cause involves

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Following this action the College faculty defined the new younger bachelor's degree and reported back to the Senate. There ensued a dispute over the proposed use of the term Bachelor of Arts, and "at one meeting the Senate referred this part of the plan back to the College faculty for further study. The College faculty reaffirmed its decision. At the next meeting [of the Senate] a motion to rescind the authority of the College to award the B.A. was lost by a vote of 58 to 58. The action of the College faculty was then declared to be in effect." Two younger bachelor's degrees are now officially announced in the College catalogue, the B.A. and the Ph.B.; the status of the B.S. is still mooted.

the recent insistence of the American Chemical Society that a bachelor who has majored in chemistry may not be eligible to membership in the society (membership provides a guild label of distinct monetary value) unless he has so concentrated in chemistry and allied fields that he must have shaped virtually his whole course from Freshman year with a view to earning his place in the profession. The likelihood is that a Chemistry student will get no liberal education but a professional one at least from the beginning of Sophomore year, perhaps from entrance into college. Similar conditions prevail among pre-medical students, even though they earn the B.A. before going to the medical school; the same with engineers and many others. The Chicago scheme, by contrast, ensures for these potential chemists, engineers, doctors and educators four years devoted to the studies necessary to any thinking man—two of those years or parts of them the very years in the life of a youth now relinquished by the "liberal" colleges to professional or distinctly vocational and "pre"-professional work.

Vocational guidance has become a kind of universal nostrum in colleges, probably because it appears to be the most effective means of urging industry upon the slothful and the uninterested. If the possibility of the vocational motive could be removed once and for all from college studies the colleges would truly be put on their mettle. Either the subject and the teaching of it must then be compelling and stimulating enough to set a student to work or the student drops out of college.

The fourth objection is directed not so much at the Chicago faculty and their vote of last January as at the Mephistopheles of the opera, President Hutchins. It is alleged that Mr. Hutchins wants to make the college too intellectual. None can deny that he wants to make it brainy: "If education is rightly understood," he has said, "it will be understood as the cultivation of the intellect." The inference has been drawn from time to time by leaders in college education that Chicago, with its urban setting and its continental theory of the importance of examinations as opposed to the usual American requirement of attendance at courses, concerns itself with rational truth only, omitting moral truth and good conduct. The small colleges, with their somewhat familial relationships of student and faculty are termed the antithesis of the Chicago and Hutchins view, since personality and



manners and health and good conduct are admittedly the concern of house mothers, deans, chaplains and other college officers. The distinction is a dangerous one to draw. Perhaps they try to live decently at Chicago, too, even while studying so hard. The colleges, if they are really sensitive to twentieth century thought must be aware that our moral problems, the social as well as the individual ones, are directly related to—probably the result of—how we think. "As a man thinketh in his heart, so is he." The world is in a moral mess; so were we, when university and church leaders by the ten thousand urged us to be pacifist for ethical reasons and within a decade reversed themselves. The error is in thinking. Morals will be better when thinking is better. The chief and central and not too successfully accomplished job of the residential colleges like the urban universities is good thinking. This means thinking endowed with imagination, knowledge and sensitive perception.

Mr. Walter Lippmann writing last year in the *American Scholar* stated that modern education is the enemy of civilization. He presented a moral problem; it may be approached only by means of the intellect. What has happened in the past fifty years is that judgment has been ushered out of thought, and learned men have endeavored to reduce everything they do to recording, measuring, tabulating and describing. University and college teaching tends to perpetuate the ideas which were new and challenging when the professors went to college. Impressionism was still new and a little daring when the present professors were students, and you will still hear the doctrine in literary classes that criticism is nothing but the adventures of the soul among masterpieces. Anatole France and, a little later, Henry Mencken provided the future professors of the social studies and the humanities with articles of belief. One of these was that standards exist only in the rigid and artificial form in which many Puritans pretended unsuccessfully to believe in them. If these are the standards, all standards have little validity. In those days Bertrand Russell's sentimental essay, "A Free Man's Worship" caught the eye of the promising and adventuresome undergraduates. Few of the present generation of professors cherish the ancient and renaissance view that relatively firm and reliable standards of human value may be discovered by extensive analy-



sis, comparison and intuition about human experience, both recorded and current. In consequence, few concern themselves at all with the determination of value. In faculty discussions it must be solemnly agreed that a senior may with equal profit devote a year to tabulating, analyzing and comparing the retail prices of goods in the chain stores or to becoming intimately acquainted with the *Divine Comedy*. Mr. Lippmann says that we are the enemies of civilization because we have cut men off from the studies which make them civilized—the accurate studies of their own nature involved in the best records we have of ourselves, records written, perforce, largely in the past, and in languages not our own. The educational world will not admit this primarily because it will not admit that anyone can tell whether one idea is better than another.

Coincident with the deterioration of judgment in informed thinking the university world has seen the extensive growth of wholesome little enterprises designed to preserve or improve the morals of the students: fraternity supervision, widespread athletics, personnel work on a clinical scale, the advisory system, chaplaincies, Christian Associations. Exit morals from thinking: enter morals into the “activities.” Not bad, the latter, but an inadequate substitute.

Mr. Hutchins’s speeches and essays for a decade have dealt vigorously with the abandonment of value in the higher learning. His outline of college studies and their purpose suffers from the brilliant and overwhelming simplicity of his own logic. Himself a skillful dialectician, he describes thinking almost exclusively in terms of dialectic, neglecting the large element of rhetoric implicit in all rewarding discourse. His students and those whose advanced work has been pursued under the direction of professors friendly to the Hutchins analysis of learning tend, as is only natural, to echo that tone of argument in their thinking. In reading the exposition of the modern trivium and quadrivium one is led to hope that he will find evidences at Chicago of the classical spirit, and not infrequently what he finds is the neo-classical—great skill in dealing with categories and an assumption that highly important knowledge may be stated pat.

So much of Mr. Hutchins’s technical vocabulary is derived from the exact phrases of scholastic debate, we are safe in under-

standing his word "intellectual" as involving what it involved for Aquinas, imagination and intuition as well as syllogistic reasoning. Disciplined imagination is never a common element in the thinking of any age. It has been peculiarly absent from the serious thinking of this century, largely because of the effort to expel any reference to value. Simultaneously the schools and colleges have abandoned the concerted attempt of former years to school the feeling by excluding from the curriculum the only precise information about the feelings which we have, the best and most accurate literature, most of which happens to be ancient. Mr. Hutchins's analysis of the liberating studies does not openly exclude the close study of these things, that is, rhetoric, but his consistently lucid argument fails to reassure us that intuition and a perception of the mysterious is included along with the demonstrable.

Objectors to the new Chicago bachelor's degree are inclined in the first place to be unimpressed with Mr. Hutchins's philosophical arguments and in the second place to inquire what his philosophy has to do with the probable development of curricular rules by the Chicago faculty. It is true, of course, that the surveys now required of freshmen and sophomores at Chicago antedate Mr. Hutchins and do not express the principle of the trivium and quadrivium which he has urged upon the colleges. Evidently under the new rules the student in the two years prior to receiving the new B.A. will be required to study an extensive survey in the humanities, one in the social studies, and two in the natural sciences.<sup>6</sup> He will be required to do this, regardless of what he has already done or plans to do. One may very well contend that the survey is not a very realistic or actual form of treating knowledge and that a much better set of requirements could be devised for all students receiving general education before concentration. Surely the Chicago faculty, as in the past, will continue to debate these matters with vehemence.

But despite all these qualifications, it can hardly be denied that

<sup>6</sup> These required courses continue to be revised and no doubt improved. In the humanities, for instance, the tendency in the construction of examinations is in effect to require the reading of a restricted number of best books and attendance at a series of historical lectures and critical discussions. The only stipulated requirement is to pass the examination.

one small step has already been taken by the Chicago faculty in the direction of reversing the prejudice of the last half century against admitting value judgments into the higher learning and the rules governing the degree. Henceforth the faculty itself must choose. They must choose what subjects will be regarded as better than all others to discipline the imagination of undergraduates and instruct the soul. The fact that a majority of them in January accepted the obligation, regardless of how poorly they may fulfill their duty, represents a mighty turn against the tide. Let us hope that they maintain the courage of that courageous decision.

Critics of the Chicago plans of study and examination have usually distinguished them from conventional plans in this country by the use of foreign labels. The reliance upon examinations as the chief or only requirement for the bachelor's degree has been called by its enemies German and by its friends French. It is worth noticing that the ancient universities of Britain, while they do require minimum periods of residence, do in effect stake the degree entirely upon the final examination. The spirit, organization and theory of the University of Chicago do have a continental sound, but the recent action of the faculty voting the new rules for the bachelor's degree makes possible a division of the student's energies not unlike the eminently successful course leading to the B.A. (and, on payment of fees, the M.A.) at Oxford and Cambridge. At those universities the undergraduate studies fixed books until he is about nineteen or twenty, when on examination (Moderations at Oxford) he attains Senior Standing (the new B.A. at Chicago). Then, if a superior student, he is eligible to read for honours (to study for the M.A. at Chicago) which he earns after concentration upon literally everything of importance within one large field (such as Modern History) and successfully passing an examination at the end of about three years (as with the Chicago M.A.).

Most of the foregoing deals with potentialities in the new Chicago B.A. There are no guarantees in the essential plans of any human institution, even such a brilliant one as the University of Chicago. Perhaps Mr. Hutchins's worried contemporaries are right, and none of the philosophical values available to the new plan can be achieved because of the countless compromises neces-

sary within the best of faculties. But what experiment was not primarily a question of potentialities?

These considerations lead us to view with amazement the reception of the decision of the Chicago faculty last January. It is true that one major leader of higher education, President Rainey of the University of Texas, did say publicly and emphatically: let's leave Chicago alone to develop its own ideas. But officially, the associations of schools, colleges and universities did their best to scare Chicago out. As one listened to everyone outside of Chicago making the affair his own business, with the awful power of organized public opinion behind him, he could imagine what it may have been like to liquidate the kulaks. The notably anti-intellectual elements of the Chicago press lost no tidbit of the *opprobrium academicum*, quoting the resolutions of disapproval in order to persuade the man in the Chicago street that the distinguished scientists and scholars who voted the new plan after a dozen years of study, experiment and discussion are irresponsible citizens.

It is true that the liberal arts colleges expect to have a hard time. Ever since Hitler marched into Poland they have been expecting that their worries will be financial. To propose that the problems be academic—the private and special business of the colleges themselves, may seem unjust to many. Without a doubt, if the Chicago plan succeeds, a hundred new problems will be created for all the rest of us. That they are all questions of intellectual efficiency, of philosophy and effective teaching will, as a matter of fact, be welcomed by the faculties of the colleges, once the air has cleared and the real results of this newest experiment in Chicago may be seen and judged.

## THE BACHELOR'S DEGREE

WALTER CROSBY EELLS

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

AT intervals during the past fifty years or more there have been sporadic discussions of shortening the college course and conferring the commonly recognized baccalaureate degree or degrees for less than the normal four-year college course of study or its equivalent. The question has suddenly become acute, however, with the recently announced intention of one of the leading American universities to grant the bachelor's degree at the sophomore level.

I regret exceedingly that this issue has been raised, particularly in time of war, when in my judgment the forces of higher education should be united as never before. But it has been raised, after a close vote on the part of the responsible faculty of the University of Chicago, and therefore in true American fashion deserves and will doubtless receive full, free, and furious discussion.

*The proposal.* As I understand the plan of the University of Chicago, it is to confer the bachelor's degree at the conclusion of a normal four-year curriculum of "general" education which is to begin with the junior year in high school and close with the commonly understood sophomore year in the present college or university. Successful completion of the curriculum will be determined primarily by a comprehensive examination. Thus the degree may be given even earlier than the sophomore level.

*Preliminary comments.* With certain phases of this challenging proposal I find myself in most hearty accord. For years we in the junior college field have been insisting that there is a marked break at about the end of the sophomore year of the junior college—that many students should and do complete their formal college education at this level and that those who continue should change their academic emphasis markedly at this point. President Hutchins proposes to dignify this important point of educational achievement with a significant college degree. I am

NOTE: Portions of an Address before the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, Chicago, April 14, 1942.

in cordial and emphatic agreement. I think, however, he does not go far enough. I would not limit a college degree to students who have completed a course only in *general* education. I have advocated and expect to continue to advocate a college degree for all college students who at the sophomore level complete *any* rational curriculum of college grade, whether general, vocational, technical, or any combination of these elements *best fitted to the needs of the particular student*. It is the college student and his needs that are important and deserve the recognition of a college degree, not any particular *type* of curriculum. Many junior colleges are now giving a college degree for various terminal curricula and many others are planning to do so. This seems to me eminently wise and desirable. A college degree is more significant for the junior college terminal student than for the transfer student who presumably will ultimately secure a higher degree. Note, however, that I have referred to a *college degree*, not the *bachelor's degree*. I shall return to this distinction later.

President Hutchins' proposals are by no means limited to the University of Chicago. It is obvious, of course, that they have marked implications for the universities, the senior colleges, and the junior colleges of the country. With reference to the junior colleges, however, he leaves no possible room for doubt. In the first official announcement of the plan, President Hutchins applies it to all junior colleges as well. He says:

The 600 junior colleges of the country are at present an anomaly in the educational system. . . . If they, too, decided to award the bachelor's degree at the end of two years, their position will be regularized and stabilized.

In other statements, some of which I shall quote later, he has spoken still more strongly, not only suggesting but urging that all junior colleges adopt the same plan. The matter, therefore, becomes one of vital importance to junior college people. They have not invited this controversy. They would have much preferred to avoid it, particularly in wartime. They want unity and cooperation, not disunity and competition. At the same time they will not shrink from the discussion if it is forced upon them.

I want to make it very clear, however, beyond question of a doubt, that in what I shall say I am not speaking officially for the junior colleges of the United States nor for the American



Association of Junior Colleges of which I am an officer. I am speaking only as an individual observer and student of the junior college movement and of higher education in general. I have had no opportunity to poll the junior colleges on the subject since the vote taken by the University of Chicago faculty. I have sounded out the members of our Executive Committee and find that they vary from strong approval to strong condemnation. May I repeat, therefore, that I am speaking only as an individual, not as an official junior college representative.

I regret exceedingly to say that, although cordially approving the Chicago proposal in some respects, in other respects, after considerable study and thought, I have reached the conviction that it is distinctly *undesirable*, *unnecessary* and *unfortunate*.

I myself have held a degree for more than thirty years from the University of Chicago and have taken great pride and satisfaction in it—not in the degree in itself, but in the work for which it stands and of which it is a convenient symbol. I owe much to this, my second alma mater. It is not easy for a son to turn against his fostering mother. It is much pleasanter to praise and protect her. But even filial loyalty should not be a deterrent if the mother seems to have gone astray in the academic world. Incidentally, I am glad that my own Chicago degree is the master's and not the bachelor's!

#### UNDESIRABLE

My first major statement is that *the proposed change is undesirable*—and for a number of reasons.

For one thing, I am not clear as to just what is meant by "general education," although I have read many articles about it and numerous definitions of it. I hope the intent of the Chicago plan and that proposed for all junior colleges is not necessarily to be restricted to the present Chicago type of general education. Does general education necessarily mean all required courses or is broad freedom of election to be permitted? Must it mean general survey courses? Must it be based upon 100 great books? Or on 100 current magazines? Or perchance on 100 modern movies? Does it necessarily involve comprehensive examinations? Must it close at the sophomore level or can there be a mixture of general and specific, of cultural and vocational, in the

upper division? Can there be a similar mixture, rather than exclusively general education, in the junior college? Is shop work general or vocational? It may be vocational for the mechanic, but desirably avocational for the photographer. Many such questions need clarification before the proposal is accepted in its entirety.

There is another reason I question its desirability. When will the Chicago student be ready for the bachelor's degree? I understand that approximately ten per cent of the students at Chicago complete the present "college" in less than the common two years, often in only one year. Under the new plan such students presumably can have their bachelor's degree in only one year beyond the common high school level. If Chicago goes a step further and admits superior high school juniors to present freshman standing on the Midway, perhaps they can secure the bachelor's degree at the same time or even before their high school colleagues receive their high school diplomas. Do we agree that this is desirable—even for the exceptional student? My earlier argument regarding *time* as an important element leads me to a negative answer to this question.

The most important reason, however, why the proposal is undesirable is that the bachelor's degree already has a long-standing, well-established meaning very different from that now proposed. If we could wipe the slate clean and start over again in American education, there might be some merit in the new plan. But we cannot wipe the slate clean. We cannot abolish history. We cannot disregard the fact that the bachelor's degree to mark the conclusion of the typical four-year college course rests upon long historical usage, commencing with the first conferring of that degree at Harvard College in 1642—exactly 300 years ago; that its use under more nearly uniform and standardized conditions has been greatly accentuated during the present century; that hundreds of higher educational institutions now possess established priority rights; that more than 3,000,000 men and women living in the United States today have secured the bachelor's degree and have some rights in asking that its meaning be not suddenly debased.

For many years in earlier life in the Far West I was a civil engineer. As such I was frequently called upon to make surveys

to settle boundary disputes, to determine the correct position of line fences, and to adjust claims to common territory. It was not long before I learned the principle of law which the legal profession terms "adverse possession." In early days in the West, the original land surveys were made by contract and let out to the lowest bidder. Some early surveyors were none too conscientious and were more interested in making money than in establishing with precision the exact location of fundamental township and section corners on land that was considered of little value anyway. As a result, I sometimes found cases where a man's line fence was as much as 50 or 100 feet away from where it should have been if the original corners had been correctly located. But the courts have held, and with equity I think, that if a man in good faith has had undisputed possession of land for a period of years (varying somewhat in different jurisdictions) his boundary fence would remain unchanged regardless of where it possibly should have been if all surveys originally had been made correctly—unless decided otherwise by mutual agreement of the parties at interest.

I feel the situation is somewhat parallel now in higher education. Hundreds of American colleges for far more than the minimum legal period have had "adverse possession" of the bachelor's degree as the legitimate and commonly recognized boundary of their academic territory. Please note that I am not stating that this was an error in this case. I am only saying that even if, for the sake of argument, we should admit that different academic boundaries might have been established originally, the principle of adverse possession is as valid for education as for real estate—if not more so. Those now possessing bachelor's degrees (with all the rights, privileges and boundaries pertaining thereto) have prior claims—have the rights of adverse possession. Changes can be made with fairness to all concerned only if the parties at interest concur in those changes. This I think you will find is sound legal doctrine. It is also, in my judgment, ordinary honesty, recognized ethics and good common sense.

There is still another exceedingly important reason why this plan seems to me undesirable. It is certain to engender collegiate rivalry and hostility. Not for a long time, if ever, are the four-year liberal arts colleges going to surrender their rights to

the baccalaureate degree with its present meaning and to their particular types of curricula. We have heard, of course, frequent and vigorous assertions that the American college is decadent, anomalous, antiquated and slated for the academic junk pile. I note, however, that for a dying institution it seems still to have preserved quite surprising vigor and vitality and continues to make outstanding contributions to American civilization. Evidently it has more lives even than the proverbial cat. I am sure the American college needs no defense from me.

The junior colleges also have their place in American education and in American civilization. What is that place? Is the junior college a young upstart in the field of higher education, greedily attempting to usurp the fields already adequately occupied by established institutions, or does it have a legitimate place in the total pattern of American education? Is it a rival or an ally?

Article I of my educational creed for the past several years has been that the junior colleges and the senior colleges should not be rivals but friendly partners in a common cause—that they are not in *competition* but in *cooperation*. This conviction has been the guiding principle of all my work in the executive secretaryship of the American Association of Junior Colleges, in the editorship of the *Junior College Journal*, and in junior college addresses and other activities. Nor am I alone in this belief. A few months ago, in order to check my own educational creed, I secured from almost 2,000 representative educators and laymen in all parts of the country answers to the question: "Do you feel that the junior college is primarily an institution in competition or in cooperation with other institutions of higher education?" The answers were five to one in favor of an interpretation of the junior college as a *cooperating* not as a *competing* institution.

I think I have been able to see some positive and constructive outcomes of the policy I have been trying to follow based upon this fundamental article of my educational creed. I have seen the unhappy results in some states where the junior and senior colleges were hostile to each other. I have seen the happy results where they are working in cooperation and harmony.

If, however, all or even a large proportion of the junior colleges of the country should now follow President Hutchins' ad-

vice and begin giving the bachelor's degree while the liberal arts colleges continue their present practice, what would happen to this friendly relationship and cooperative spirit based upon mutual respect for each other's academic rights and privileges? I shall venture to answer this question in terms of a quotation from an address which I gave before the Middle States Association at Atlantic City last November, because this gives my considered views before the present controversy was precipitated. Speaking of the possible use of the bachelor's degree by the junior colleges I said:

I cannot conceive of any procedure likely to develop greater antagonism, rivalry, hostility, misunderstanding and academic hairpulling on the part of the senior colleges and the junior colleges. It seems to me vastly preferable as a practical example of friendly cooperation rather than of unfriendly competition that so many junior colleges have made the decision or are rapidly making the decision to adopt instead a distinctive and unique degree of their own to represent a significant *degree* of collegiate educational progress. They are not attempting to usurp the use of the baccalaureate degree to which the four-year American college has had proprietary rights, or what the legal profession would term adverse possession, for more than 300 years.

My feelings on this matter are unchanged.

Do the junior colleges want to give the baccalaureate degree? Frankly, I do not know their attitude now, but last year I asked them all this question: "Do you favor the bachelor's degree at the end of junior college?" Of replies received from about 500, only eight per cent were favorable, and many of this small minority qualified their approval in some way. How their minds may have changed as a result of President Hutchins' advice, I have, of course, no means of knowing.

Instead of calmly attempting to appropriate our neighbor's academic property in the form of the bachelor's degree, how much more commendable is the action of President Lowell of Harvard University a few years ago. In 1910 Harvard, followed by Radcliffe and Tufts, initiated the use of the degree of *Associate in Arts* to mark the successful conclusion of *four* years of *extension work*, and numerous individuals received this degree in the next twenty years. Ten years ago, however, President Lowell wrote a formal letter to the president of the American



Association of Junior Colleges explaining the twenty-year use of the Associate in Arts degree at Harvard but stating that:

this title has been put to such general use for two years of college work that we have felt bound to abandon it and in consequence we have adopted for extension work, equivalent to a full four-years' college course, "Adjunct in Arts." It seems wise to stake out a claim in this way to a new name for a degree, and unless you have heard of its use before, I should be grateful if you would make a note of our claiming possession of it in fee simple.<sup>1</sup>

The mother of American universities thus did a generous and gracious thing as well as an honest and scientific thing and helped to clarify any possible confusion in the field of academic degrees by formally renouncing the degree which President Lowell recognized had come to be regarded as the characteristic *junior college* degree. How much wider this use has become in the ten years since President Lowell's letter was written, I shall report presently. I think no one could or would raise the slightest objection if the University of Chicago or any other university wishes to set up a new degree with a new meaning for a new curriculum which it wishes to establish.

#### UNNECESSARY

My second main point is that *the proposed change is unnecessary*. It is unnecessary principally because, as just pointed out, there is already a well-established college degree which is more and more commonly given by junior colleges and by senior colleges and universities as well to mark the close of general education or of various specialized curricula at the sophomore level. I refer, of course, to the well-known associate's degree or title, first used in this country at the University of Chicago under the leadership of its great president, William Rainey Harper. Twenty years earlier, however, it was given at the University of Durham and other British institutions for completion of a two-year collegiate course of study.

I have a record, obviously not complete, of more than 100,000 young men and young women who have received the associate's degree or title in American junior colleges in the past twenty years. Approximately 90,000 have received the Associate in

<sup>1</sup> *Junior College Journal*, 4: 153, December, 1933.



Arts, one-tenth as many the Associate in Science, while the balance are scattered in other fields. It is now awarded in at least 245 junior colleges in 40 of the 44 states in which junior colleges are located. The use of it is growing rapidly. Some 14,000 were conferred last year alone.

The use of the associate's degree is also becoming increasingly common in American senior colleges and universities to signify the completion of two years of collegiate work. The University of Chicago itself awarded the Associate in Arts or Science to some 4,500 students in earlier years. The University of Minnesota has used it for several years to mark completion of the two-year course in their General College—general education, although not exactly of the Chicago pattern. The University of California, both in its Berkeley and its Los Angeles divisions, decided only this year to abandon its former long-standing junior certificate and to confer the degree of Associate in Arts on all who complete the lower division in its major undergraduate colleges. Note the reason given:

The purpose of the degree is to accentuate the function of the first two years of college as general education rather than as specialized education and to give to those who withdraw from college at this point some significant recognition of the course of studies they have completed.

Following this action, the State Board of Education in California, less than seven weeks ago, granted the same right to all the forty-seven public junior colleges in the state to grant the *degree* of Associate in Arts. For some ten years previously they have been giving it, but have been calling it a *title*, if that is any important distinction. Now they are all to give definitely *college* degrees—but not, you will note, the *bachelor's* degree. California institutions—both junior and senior—have mutual respect for their neighbor's property rights and boundary fences. American University only last month by vote of the faculty decided to give the degree of Associate in Administration for a combination of general and specialized work, part of it on the upper division level, but totaling sixty-three semester hours, or two standard college years. The University of Nebraska has announced a group of new two-year curricula to be marked by the Associate in Arts, Associate in Science, *etc.* Just recently

the faculty of Birmingham-Southern College in Alabama voted to confer the Associate in Arts at the close of their first two years of work.

All of the state teachers colleges in Connecticut have been authorized to grant the degree of Associate in Science to students who complete general two-year curricula prior to entrance upon life activities or to professional specialization in the upper division. The Associate in Arts is authorized by law in several states and favored by the chief educational officers in many others.

Thus we find the Associate's degree or title widely and increasingly used, without criticism, by increasing numbers of junior colleges, senior colleges, teachers colleges and universities to mark the successful completion of a two-year course of study.

It is true that the Southern Association has for many years had a provision in its standards that "junior colleges shall not grant degrees." They have changed this prohibition completely, however, in their statement adopted a few weeks ago as a result of the Chicago proposals—or rather they have interpreted that prohibition as applying only to *baccalaureate* degrees. Their formal statement, adopted in February, reads:

There is no objection on the part of this Commission to the use of the Associate in Arts title or degree for the completion of the equivalent of a two-year collegiate course of study, but it urges that the baccalaureate degree should continue to signify the completion of a four-year collegiate course of study.

Correspondence that has come to my office in the past few months from a variety of institutions in different states, hearings before special legislative committees to which I have been invited, state junior college conventions, and numerous other evidence is at hand to show that there is wide and increasing interest in the associate's degree and approval of it as the appropriate and desirable degree to symbolize the completion of the equivalent of a two-year college curriculum at the sophomore level.

These are the principal reasons I feel the Chicago proposal for a bachelor's degree is *unnecessary*.

#### UNFORTUNATE

I come now to my third major point, *the proposed change is unfortunate—unfortunate both in method and in time.*

First, as to *method*. Many of us can remember the period when conditions with reference to the bachelor's degree were sadly confused and standards were lamentably low or entirely lacking. The situation was particularly unfortunate in the South. It cannot be better stated briefly than in the February resolution on the Chicago proposal already mentioned as passed by the Commission on Higher Education of the Southern Association. It reads:

For many years the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has labored unremittingly for reasonable uniformity in standards of achievement as the basis for the granting of degrees. During the first and second decades of this century there were institutions in this region which granted the bachelor's degree for only one or two years of bona fide college work. The result was confusion as to the meaning of college on the part of students, their parents, and the general public. After strenuous efforts over a long period, the unfortunate situation has been largely eliminated.

Academic chaos was by no means confined to the South, however. It was country-wide. There were even high schools, both north and south, which were conferring the bachelor's degree on their graduates. One was located in the city of Philadelphia.

To correct such chaotic conditions in higher education was one of the chief reasons for the organization of the various regional accrediting associations. They have established commissions on higher education, developed statements of reasonable standards, and revised and re-revised these standards in the light of developing academic opinion and majority judgment. They have labored continuously to apply these standards to existing institutions and have encouraged them to improve themselves to such an extent that they might be worthy to confer the bachelor's or the associate's or other recognized college degrees with honor to themselves and with satisfaction to their constituents. They have brought order out of chaos—or near chaos.

Again, the Chicago proposal is unfortunate not only in *method* but in *time*. We are now engulfed in the greatest cataclysm that this old world has ever known. We are struggling for our very lives—and for the perpetuation of our free institutions, including our colleges, with their right to confer any degree at all.

The first week in January there convened in Baltimore a meeting which was characterized by Dr. George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education, as "No doubt the largest and most comprehensive gathering of university and college executives ever held in this country." Representatives were present from forty-six states, Porto Rico and the Dominion of Canada. Several days were spent in full and frank discussion of the way the resources of higher education could best be placed at the service of the nation in the terrible crisis we now face. Much time was spent in consideration of ways to accelerate the processes of higher education so that students might, if possible, complete their college courses before going into service. Many plans were proposed, debated, submitted to groups and committees. Unity in essentials was felt to be important but latitude in working details desirable. As far as I can find, however, when a wide variety of plans were being thrown into the hopper for democratic consideration, no suggestion was made by the University of Chicago of this plan to change completely the accepted concept of the bachelor's degree. I have already outlined the important results of the Baltimore conference in terms of types of acceleration approved. The bachelor's degree at the sophomore level was not one of these. Yet within less than three weeks after the adjournment of the Baltimore conference, with its fundamental unity on major issues, the announcement was made from Chicago of the plan to change completely the significance of the bachelor's degree—acceleration with a vengeance!

Perhaps the American Association of University Women was justified in its recently-published statement on the subject, referring to the Chicago proposal, with characteristic feminine intuition, as "a Pearl Harbor attack on the bachelor's degree," and "as tending to cause confusion in academic terms and to debase the value of the bachelor's degree." Even if there were merit in the Chicago proposal for the bachelor's degree at the sophomore level, should it not have been postponed for sane and peaceful consideration after the war is over?

President Hutchins has repeatedly referred to William Rainey Harper and Nicholas Murray Butler as favoring the new Chicago plan, but has not quoted them directly as far as I know. Regarding President Butler he says:

The proposals I have made for the reorganization of education are not new. President Butler of Columbia made them forty years ago. Nobody could find anything against them then. Nobody can find anything against them now.

Please bear in mind that President Hutchins' "proposals for the reorganization of education" are very specifically for a four-year unit followed at the sophomore level by the bachelor's degree.

It is quite true that about 1900 President Butler made various tentative suggestions to his trustees for a shortened college course and also suggested possible alternatives for an appropriate symbol of completion, one of which was the bachelor's, another of which was the associate's. His suggestions were debated by various prominent university presidents of that period, culminating in a formal discussion at a meeting of the National Education Association three years later in 1903. President Butler's statement at this time presumably represented his latest and most matured thinking on the question. He said:

There should be a college course, two years in length, carefully constructed as a thing in itself. Whether the completion of such a two-year college course should be crowned with a degree is to me a matter of indifference.<sup>2</sup>

This does not seem to be very vigorous support either for the four-year unit advocated by President Hutchins nor for the bachelor's degree at the sophomore level. It certainly does not support President Hutchins' proposals with reference to the junior college movement, since there was only one small public junior college in existence, here in Illinois, and that one only one year old! Since that time has occurred the marvelous growth of the junior college movement, already mentioned, "the most wholesome and significant occurrence in American education in the present century," to quote a prominent university president. The separate "college course, two years in length, carefully constructed as a thing in itself" advocated by President Butler forty years ago, has come about in 600 junior colleges in a way he certainly did not foresee at that time. Nor have we noted any recent proposals coming from Morningside Heights to give the bachelor's degree at the sophomore level.

<sup>2</sup> *Educational Review*, 26: 144-145, September, 1903.



President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard University also participated in this discussion. He said:

I urge that the universities should maintain each its present standard for the degree of bachelor of arts.

In the same discussion President Harper devoted practically his whole address, arranged with his characteristic clarity of expression and modesty, to:

considerations which appear to me to be distinctly opposed to the proposition to make three years the normal period of residence for the college course, instead of four.<sup>3</sup>

In conclusion, he says:

I would suggest that the plan which has been in operation at the University of Chicago for nearly 10 years has seemed to many of us to meet in large measure the demands called for this morning. This plan provides a course of four years and a course of two years. . . . The provision of a two-year course meets the needs of many who cannot take a longer term of residence and likewise of many who ought not to take a longer course. The provision of a normal four-year course meets the needs of the average man or woman. This plan does not imply that this average man or woman is particularly stupid nor that a year has been wasted. With the completion of the two-year course, a certificate is given, granting the title of Associate in the university.

I have presented three major arguments: (1) that the University of Chicago proposal regarding the bachelor's degree is *undesirable*, because other institutions have long-established and widely-recognized prior proprietary rights and because hopeless academic confusion and hairpulling would result; (2) that it is *unnecessary* because every legitimate need for a college degree at the sophomore level can be met by the existing and increasingly common and popular associate's degree, which has none of the objections inherent in this unauthorized attempt to appropriate the bachelor's degree from its present owners; and (3) that it is *unfortunate*, not only in method of proposal without regard to existing educational agencies and organizations, but also particularly unfortunate, perhaps even unpatriotic, in its proposal in time of war, tending to lead to educational disunity when unity is more important than ever before. If these three argu-

<sup>3</sup> National Education Association, *Proceedings*, 1903, p. 504.



ments are valid—and I firmly believe that they are—then we must regretfully conclude that this proposal to destroy the integrity of the bachelor's degree by awarding it in some institutions at the sophomore level should be classified not in the "wise" but in the "otherwise" category.

I shall only add, therefore, the highly significant statement recently approved by the official boards of the Association of American Colleges, the Church Boards of Education, the conference of Church-Related Colleges, the Association of Colleges of the Pacific Southwest and the Association of State Universities. Similar statements have also been adopted with few or no dissenting votes by the Southern and North Central Associations. I do not see how a single phrase of it could be improved as a brief but comprehensive statement of desirable policy for the future. It reads as follows:

The four-year liberal arts college and the two-year junior college are distinctive and unique products of the American system of higher education. They have no exact counterpart in other countries. Increasingly in hundreds of these colleges, over a long period of years, the bachelor's degree has come to stand for the successful completion of four years of collegiate education beyond the secondary school; the associate's degree or title for the successful completion of two years of collegiate education beyond the secondary school—whether secured in the lower division of a university, in a liberal arts college, or in a separately organized junior college.

It is desirable that there be reasonable uniformity in the award of these college degrees in order to avoid confusion on the part of the educational world and of the general public. Any proposal, particularly under wartime conditions, to award the widely recognized bachelor's degree at the close of the junior college or of the sophomore year after only two years or less of college beyond the secondary school is to be deplored. Such practice is sure to lead to widespread misunderstanding and confusion and to result in cheapening the significance of the time-honored and universally recognized baccalaureate degree. The baccalaureate degree should continue to signify the completion of the equivalent of a four-year collegiate course of study; the associate's degree the completion of the equivalent of a two-year collegiate course of study.

## SURVEYING THE COLLECTIONS OF A UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

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### I

A SURVEY of the collections of a university or research library has two essential purposes—it provides a guide to present collections and a plan for future development. Inasmuch as any plan for future development must rest on a knowledge of the present situation, the first aim is really subordinate to the second. Up to a certain point (which point is generally recognized but not easily specified) the growth of a research library can proceed without any conscious planning. A small library which aspires to serve the research needs of a community of scholars is confronted with a multiplicity of immediate needs which it must serve by collecting materials wherever and whenever such materials become available. But as a research library grows it becomes a library of deposit, that is to say, it begins to concern itself not so much with serving immediate needs but with gathering materials for potential use.

This change of emphasis is altogether proper, as anyone must realize who attends to the changing content of immediate needs. Nothing is so dead as yesterday's fashion, in scholarship as in clothes, and tomorrow's need may be for materials only available today.

But an unrestricted principle of potential use as a guide to building the collections of a research library is altogether too nebulous and vague. Every bit of print or writing, every cultural artifact, every picture, and even every monument and building has a potential use for the future scholar. From the attempt to catch the oral tradition on records, which some libraries are already making, it is only a short step to dictaphones on every street corner and in every house to catch and embalm the living speech as it occurs. And the final step would be an Egyptian attempt to build modern pyramids in which to catch and embalm the total past.

It is clear that we cannot rest content with a policy based either

on serving immediate needs or on supplying materials for any potential use. A survey of library resources should be designed to resolve this dilemma. It should make it possible to establish a policy which goes beyond service to immediate needs, and yet does not flounder in the uncharted sea of potential use.

Several research libraries have already carried through and published surveys of their collections. Further, a handful of regional surveys of resources have been made and published. In most of these surveys there was a more or less clear understanding of the purposes of a survey as we have stated them above. In discussing the aims of the survey of the University of Chicago Libraries Dr. Raney says, "The history of the collections was of interest only in so far as this threw light on the problem of the future";<sup>1</sup> regarding the University of Pennsylvania survey, Professor Read remarks, "It serves, of course, to show at once the strong points and weak points of the University libraries. It will be valuable to the University itself as a guide to rounding out its collections."<sup>2</sup> And the same notion is expressed in the introduction to *Resources of Southern Libraries*:

This general survey of resources for research in the southern states grew out of the activities of the American Library Association Committee on Resources of Southern Libraries, organized in 1934. That Committee's chief reason for being is to coordinate and increase facilities available for advanced study in the region. On practically every plan proposed for carrying out its objectives, however, the Committee found itself working in the dark for lack of information about library holdings. . . . A systematic survey of book holdings in every type of institution containing materials of potential value for study and research was the logical outcome.<sup>3</sup>

Unfortunately the techniques employed in these surveys were not such as to insure the achievement of the purposes stated. Any plan for future development must supply a directive for estimating potential use, or must specify what potential uses are to be

<sup>1</sup> M. L. Raney, *The University Libraries*. (The University of Chicago Survey, Vol. VII.) Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. p. 3.

<sup>2</sup> Bibliographical Planning Committee of Philadelphia, *A Faculty Survey of the University of Pennsylvania Libraries*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1940. p. 1.

<sup>3</sup> Robert B. Downs (ed.), *Resources of Southern Libraries*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. p. xi.

considered and served. In describing and justifying the technique to be proposed below, we shall comment on specific departures from the practices of other surveys. But first we should like to present certain general considerations which have determined our resolution of the problem of potential use.

The basis for this resolution is the distinction between reference and research materials. The central core of any research library is its reference collection. Such a collection includes not only reference material in the narrow sense, *i.e.*, dictionaries, encyclopedias, indexes, handbooks and bibliographies, but journals, standard texts and editions, monographic sets, society publications, *etc.* For the purposes of this survey the general characterization applicable to a reference collection is that it is made up of individual titles each one of which has immediate or predictable potential value for the user. Reference books are written and published with such potential use in view, and the use made of reference works is primarily that use which author and publisher intended. If someone wishes to know the population of Java or the binomial theorem he consults works which were prepared specifically to give such information.

All this is obvious but we state it here in order to set off the contrasting nature of research material. A textbook or an encyclopedia which is untrustworthy or has gone out of date has no potential value as a reference work, but it may have research value in preparing a biography of the author, a history of textbooks or a catalog of local imprints. If we generalize the notion involved in this example, we may say that research materials do not have or have lost the values intended by their authors and have taken on values determined by the actual or possible interest in them of research workers or scholars. In a work which attempts to describe and clarify the nature of the materials used by historians, Professor Salmon says:

The historian finds material of very great importance in the records whose value for the most part depends on the unconsciousness with which they have been made. . . . It thus often happens that what purposes to be history is manifestly though unintentionally false, while embedded in it are the unconscious records of conditions that often could be known in no other way. . . . It must thus be evident that the first great classification of historical records should be made with

reference to those that are unconsciously given by recorders who know not what they do.<sup>4</sup>

This last is but a figurative way of saying that the possible uses of research material may have little to do with the initial purposes which determined the preparation of the material.

There is one further distinction between reference and research material, the recognition of which must enter into our formulation of library acquisition policy. The amount of reference material in existence and currently produced is limited, and it is reasonable to attempt to attain a relatively complete collection. On the other hand, research material by its very nature is unlimited. This difference follows from the logical principle that truth is finite whereas falsehood is infinite. If we add a column of figures there is one true answer and an infinite number of false answers. There can be only one true census of an area or description of a botanical specimen, but there can be an infinite number of false or distorted censuses or descriptions. These instances are extreme; in practice the true description or the true account of affairs is difficult to determine and reference works multiply and replace one another. But the distinction is sound in principle because the research worker may be interested in all false descriptions of an event or state of affairs even when he knows they are false. The unlimited character of research material follows not only from this logical antithesis, but also from the fact which we have previously noted that the research value of any material is not an intrinsic property but accrues to the material by virtue of the interest in it which any research worker happens to have.

The distinction between research and reference material is apt to be obscured by the vagueness of the terms we have been forced to use to specify the distinction. It is undoubtedly true that reference books are used in research and that one may "refer" to research material. Nevertheless we must allow the distinction and agree to treat a good part of our collection not as books to be read for enjoyment or information but as documentary artifacts which function as "evidence" in literary or historical research.

It is now possible to state a policy regarding the acquisition of

<sup>4</sup>L. M. Salmon, *Historical Material*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1933. pp. 14-15, 20.



library materials for potential use. It is feasible to collect reference material for potential use because such material is limited in amount and its potential use can be foreseen and estimated. As we have noted above the very publication of such material is predicated on the possibility of predicting potential use. Research material is unlimited in amount and its potential use cannot be predicated. Therefore, research material should not be collected except for immediate use. A library may legitimately anticipate and attempt to serve all future reference needs but it cannot and should not attempt to anticipate the research interests of its present and future faculty.

Some exceptions must be made, however, to this general policy. In certain instances a university may commit itself to a permanent program of research in a given field. In such cases it may be legitimate for the university library to anticipate demands and gather research materials for potential use. But the dangers of waste and extravagance which are inherent in such exceptions should lead the library administration to exercise constant vigilance over any program to acquire research material, the need for which and the value of which is not immediately obvious.

The library portrait which will emerge from the policy outlined above will disclose a basic reference collection supplemented by a number of research collections and the program for the future can be made quite specific. The chief aim will be to complete and maintain the reference collection. The secondary aim will be to develop special research collections. As research interests change new research collections may be initiated and old ones neglected. It must not be supposed that a change of scholarly interest which results in the neglect of certain research collections represents waste. Librarians are constantly bemoaning the stagnation of particular research collections gathered to serve a faculty member who changed his interests or moved on to another institution. They overlook the possibility that such collections may already have fulfilled the purposes for which they were gathered. The fact that the value of research material is a function of the scholar's interest rather than an intrinsic property of the material implies that the absence of interest may mean, not that a valuable collection is being neglected, but that a collection has lost its value.



## II

If we now examine existing library surveys in the light of the distinction between research and reference materials, we can illustrate more specifically the grounds for the type of survey we are proposing.

In tabulating resources and estimating needs, the surveys attempted a breakdown in accordance with academic departments. This led necessarily to a tremendous amount of duplication and inconsistency.

In *Resources of Southern Libraries* the same titles are listed under many different subjects and many titles are not listed under subjects for which they are relevant. In spite of the attempt to obviate some of the difficulty by treating certain types of material (government documents, manuscripts, etc.) as falling outside of the departmental breakdown, the one thing demonstrated by the breakdown is its non-significance. "Departments" don't need or read books, they are only academic fictions. And when we talk of fields of knowledge we are dealing with abstract limiting concepts; the active scientist or the scholar defines his own field which may or may not resemble the pattern established for the sake of academic convenience. In order to operate within the restrictions of the fiction, the University of Chicago survey is forced, for example, to allocate to one department an interest in French History, and to another an interest in French Civilization. Hence, it is proposed that a unified account of the reference collection be substituted for the usual breakdown by departments.

Two techniques of describing collections have been used. The Chicago survey gives its results in percentages reached by checking its holdings against certain lists. *Resources of Southern Libraries* lists outstanding titles and number of volumes and the Pennsylvania survey offers a combination of the two. In the end Dr. Raney is forced to admit that the percentage figures give an erroneous impression because they leave relative value of titles out of account. But there is a further reason why percentages are nonsignificant. It is meaningful to discuss the percentage of reference works a library owns because it can be assumed that the total is limited, but the number of research items is for all

practical purposes limitless and no estimate of percentage of research works can be significant.

The listing of titles also must be unsuccessful. In the first place all general research libraries, which are research libraries in fact and not in courtesy, have a great many reference works in common and to list such titles is sheer waste. Secondly, research materials are rarely significant as individual items and the character of a research collection should be given a general description rather than itemized by title. The implications of this criticism will be made clearer below.

Finally, by failing to distinguish research and reference materials the existing surveys must fail to present a plan for development. Anything and everything has potential value for some type of research. Hence it is not possible to present a program for the general acquisition of research materials.

The separate description of research collections enables us to use a new and simplified method of describing the reference collection. Instead of listing the titles in the collection, list the titles that are lacking, and it is to be understood, that in general, all sets, periodicals, standard works, *etc.*, not included in the listing are in the library's reference collection. Here we can perceive the importance of the theoretical assumption that the number of reference works is limited and small in comparison with the number of works with possible value for research. If we consider in detail a specific section from *Resources of Southern Libraries*, the justification of this assumption and the technique we have founded on it will become clear. According to *Resources of Southern Libraries*, "The two major collections of philosophy in the South are in the University of Texas and the University of Virginia." If our assumption is sound, the standard works and sets in philosophy will be at both libraries and it will be simpler to distinguish them by what they lack rather than what they possess. The *Resources of Southern Libraries*, however, proceeds on the basis of listing holdings,

[at Texas] Modern philosophy shows particular strength as evidenced by the collected works of Bacon, Locke, Hume, Dugald Stewart, Charles Sanders, Peirce, Nietzsche, Schopenhauer, Descartes, Spinoza, Hegel, and Kant. The library receives 35 current serials including the well-known American and foreign titles as: *Logos*, *Monist*, *Mind*, *Revue Philoso-*

*phique, Journal of Philosophical Studies, Philosophical Review, Hibbert Journal, Aristotelian Society Proceedings, Archiv fur Geschichte der Philosophie, and Revue de Metaphysique.*

At the University of Virginia . . . Kant, Spinoza, Schopenhauer, Nietzsche, Plato, Aristotle, Bacon, and Spencer are among the philosophers largely represented by works and critical commentaries. Files of periodicals include *Aristotelian Society Proceedings, Erkenntnis, Hibbert Journal, International Journal of Ethics, Journal of Philosophical Studies, Journal of Philosophy, Journal of Speculative Philosophy, Journal of Symbolic Logic, Mind, Monist, Philosophical Review, Philosophy, and Revue Philosophique.*

It is immediately apparent that the chief distinction between the two collections is that the items are listed in different order in each list. The editor having found no significant difference between the two collections makes a difference by varying the emphasis of his description. Further, the titles in one list and not in the other are actually possessed by both libraries. Here again the editor apparently suggests a difference which is not true in fact. For example, the Texas list omits six journals mentioned in the Virginia list, but the University of Texas Library has these journals.

Had our proposed technique been adopted in this instance, the results would have been somewhat of the following nature. The general adequacy of the collections would have been stated and Texas would have been described as lacking the works of this or that man or this or that periodical set; Virginia's holdings would have been described in the same manner. Incomplete lists of holdings whose possession could safely be assumed would not be necessary.

There are additional advantages of our technique which may be briefly noted. The description of resources already in the library repeats information already available in other forms. And while it does indirectly present information concerning lacks and needs, it does not present this information in a usable form. At one time or another a scholar or research worker may be confronted with lacuna in the library's holdings which should be eliminated. But in default of immediate action, which is not always possible, he may forget his experience and the lacuna will remain. It is obvious that a list of works *not* in the reference

collection of the library will be of extraordinary value as a guide to future development, and to scholars and research workers, if not to librarians, the absence of titles from such a list will be a sufficient indication of the present resources of the library.

Just as our technique makes it unnecessary for us to list the obvious, it saves us from assigning false value to bibliographical rarities. If a library attempts a positive description and evaluation of its holdings and hopes thereby to establish its individuality, it must give exaggerated emphasis and importance to its unique holdings. It is a safe generalization that the less widely a reference work is held, the less important it is. As a corollary to this proposition we must accept the conclusion that a library whose reference collection grows without bounds has given up any pretense of valuing its accessions as anything more than statistics to glorify an annual report.

### III

A technique suited to the nature of the material must likewise be used in the survey of the research collections of the library. Not only is it the case that we cannot use the method presented for surveying the reference collection, but there is no one method for describing all research collections. The nature of research materials is so indeterminate and the elements of any given collection so varied that in most cases a suitable description must be individually fashioned for each collection. In general, we may say that any description should give an account of the size and topic or topics covered, but such directives do not carry us very far. Our difficulties here stem from the fact, which we have already noted, that the relevance of material for research in any topic is determined primarily by the interests of the research worker and not by the nature of the material. For example, a collection gathered for research on some literary figure may include not only books and manuscripts he has written and works on him, but also genealogies, association copies, his own library, accounts of his friends, vital statistics, pictures, relics, records of his influence and presumed influence, *etc.* The manifold relationships enjoyed by Tennyson's "flower in the crannied wall" are no more extensive than the ramifications of a single life or topic chosen as a subject for research.

In addition to the conglomerate character of a research collection, two further difficulties must confront any attempt to formulate a technique of description. Research collections are apt to intersect, and they differ in degree of generality or scope. With reference to the former, it is apparent that any item might find a place in a number of different research collections. For example, we are now collecting material for research in radical social movements. But the first use of materials from a newly acquired socialist collection was made in connection with a study of the history of a mid-western municipality. It follows that the description of any research collection must attempt to be suggestive rather than specific.

In degree of generality a research collection may range from a collection of 16th century emblem books to a collection of Southern Americana which includes close to a million manuscripts. A description of the emblem collection might take the form of a check list, while the scope of a collection of Southern Americana would make impossible much more than a statement of size and general coverage.

The recognition of the nature and use of research material should make it apparent that ordinary library cataloging is of little use in organizing and making available such material. Ultimately, the library may attempt to supplement its catalog with a series of check lists or guides to its research collections. But until such time as this plan becomes a reality, the survey of the library must be content to provide only the barest indication of its research resources. Those who intend to use such resources may, of course, supplement the information contained in the survey either through consultation with the library staff or through personal examination.

Although prospective research workers may gain valuable information from the survey, it should be remembered that the essential function of the survey is to supply a guide to the library administration in its task of formulating an acquisition policy. Hence it is only necessary that the description of research collections should be sufficiently detailed for this purpose.

#### IV

In addition to the separate treatment of reference and research materials, certain types of material should be segregated, because

of their physical or bibliographical characteristics. Most existing surveys have followed this policy. Thus it is simpler to treat all government documents as a unit, since we can then make use of various printed guides and can simplify the organization of the materials. On the other hand, it is traditional to treat manuscripts, newspapers and general periodicals as separate groups, but in these cases the issue is not so clear. Since we do not intend a departmental breakdown, general periodicals can be treated with other periodicals as part of the reference collection. If we treat newspapers as a unit, we are overlooking the difference between a valuable reference tool such as the *New York Times* and some local or partisan sheet which has only research value. As for manuscripts, the unity derived from their form obscures a diversity of topics. Decision on these matters would vary and might well await the evidence and argument which would be forthcoming during the actual course of a survey.



## A NEW ERA IN LIBRARY COOPERATION WITH LATIN AMERICA

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SOME time ago, Dr. Lewis Hanke, Director of the Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress, published an article under the title "Is Library Cooperation with Latin America Possible" in which he expressed his pessimistic view on the subject. Dr. Hanke advanced powerful reasons in defense of the thesis that because of difference in organization, in resources and many other factors it would be well-nigh impossible to have any worthwhile cooperation between libraries in the United States and Latin America. His statements provoked the interest of librarians and students who have been laboring and giving of their time to this cause in which many of us firmly believe.

The writer does not mean to take issue with Dr. Hanke because he is well aware of the difficulties which arise in establishing relations between libraries in the two continents and also in giving continuity to any work that may be started. It must not be forgotten, however, that a number of steps have been taken which are slowly changing the pessimistic phase of the picture presented by Dr. Hanke and that certain landmarks are now visible that seem to indicate that continuity is feasible and that both sides will profit from cooperation.

It cannot be denied that we cannot expect to receive from Latin-American libraries the same things that we are able to give. But we must ask ourselves, would this be desirable? Is it not better to receive something that we need and do not have and to offer something that they need and cannot get? If we think of cooperation as a process of give and take without insisting that what is given be matched by what is received, then cooperation is possible and highly desirable and indeed will be profitable for both sides. But in the United States we have been imbued with the idea that we must measure everything in terms of dollars and cents to a point where a University Library giving a well-bound, well-printed three dollar book would like to receive, likewise, a well-bound, well-printed book worth three dol-

lars. It so happens that because of the organization of the publishing industry in Latin America, that is hardly possible. They are operating in a low-price book market; we in a very high-price book market. We should perhaps forget about monetary value and trade book for book. After all, for research and reading purposes a book is judged by the ideas contained therein rather than by price. Furthermore, it must be remembered that up to the outbreak of the war, most United States libraries buying Latin-American books were getting them through European booksellers because the booktrade between the United States and Latin America was not sufficiently well organized to start depending on it. What is more, the prices libraries in the United States were paying for Latin-American books bought from European dealers were exorbitant, because of the profit of middlemen and especially of European book agents. The war has changed this picture. There is an ever-increasing demand in the United States for Latin-American books and they must be obtained directly if at all. The demand for United States books in the neighboring republics, especially technical and scientific books, is increasing, but the trade will be hampered by the fact that our prices in terms of their national currencies are so high that the cost is prohibitive. This point is well illustrated by Mr. Harry M. Lydenberg, Director of the Biblioteca Benjamín Franklin in Mexico City in his article in the August issue of the *Library Journal* in which he states that the high price "puts most North American books out of the reach of all but the favored or fortunate few."

The spade work for the fostering of a better knowledge of each other among librarians from Latin America and the United States was made possible by a grant of the Rockefeller Foundation to the Committee on Library Cooperation with Latin America. The Committee carried on certain surveys of the distribution of books about Latin America in college and public libraries of the United States and of the circulation of the United States magazines in Latin America. It also compiled and issued a check-list of Latin-American serials in United States libraries and a list of libraries in Latin America.<sup>1</sup> These studies, sketchy

<sup>1</sup> *Preliminary List of Libraries in the Other American Republics*, compiled by Rodolfo O. Rivera, Washington, G.P.O., 1942. The other studies

as they were, came to serve as a cornerstone for future investigations along these lines. The list of libraries offers the first comprehensive picture of the library world in Latin America, and in the case of certain countries revealed library resources beyond previous estimates.

Important as these publications are, they represent only a part of the benefits derived from the grant. Having a full time Executive Assistant in Washington, the Committee could and did start individual correspondence with hundreds of important librarians and attempted to get individual libraries in the United States interested in their counterparts in Latin America. Moreover, prominent young librarians from Latin America have been brought to the United States with funds provided by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the Rockefeller Foundation and the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. The fulfillment of three main requisites were asked of candidates to be eligible for a grant. First, he or she must be an active librarian, holding a paid position. Second, the candidate must have enough knowledge of English to make his trip profitable by being able to assimilate in a short time some of the many ideas and practices of libraries in the United States. Third, it was required that the candidate have an education equivalent to an A.B. degree, so that those who were sent to Library Schools would meet as nearly as possible the entrance requirements. Simple as these requirements appear it was not easy to get many candidates who could fulfill all three of them. There are always young men and women willing to study librarianship in our library schools but who have no connection whatever with any library and therefore no assurance that they would ever be employed by one upon their return to their native country. There are some excellent librarians who have no knowledge of English and their time might not be used to the best advantage.

The work of the Committee in the selection of candidates for grants, in the compilation of the library list and in other ways, showed that cooperation is possible and that from humble beginnings it can extend and improve to a point where a great number of libraries on both sides would profit by it. We needed

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were issued by the American Library Association, Chicago, Ill., and may be obtained from it.

reliable information about candidates and it was obtained through librarians in Latin America. The preparation of the list of libraries would have been impossible had we not been able to depend on long and unstinting intelligent labor on the part of many Latin-American colleagues who gave of their time to prepare and check the lists of their respective countries. To make it easier for the Committee to exchange information with Latin America it was decided to appoint corresponding members in each one of the countries where a suitable candidate could be found. All the members are or have been active librarians interested in cooperation, and familiar with United States library practices either through attendance at library schools or through trips of observation and study. Theirs are all well-known names in Latin America: Joaquín Díaz Mercado in Mexico; Daniel Samper Ortega in Colombia; Jorge Basadre in Peru; Ernesto Gietz in Argentina; Rubens Borba de Moraes and Emanuel E. Gaudie-Ley in Brazil; Jorge Aguayo in Cuba; Enrique Planchart in Venezuela and others in other countries equally interested and enthusiastic about the work.

American librarians have been known to utter the usual complaints that they do not receive answers to their letters to Latin America. However, upon inquiry, it may usually be found that the letters were written in English to librarians who were not acquainted with the language and it should be said that some times it is much harder to get a letter translated than to answer it. The experiences of scholars in history and literature who are really interested in Latin America does not parallel the librarians'. Most of them write in the language of the country and usually get answers. Libraries which write in Spanish or Portuguese have no difficulty in getting what they want from dealers, authors or librarians in Latin America. Librarians might well give thought to the language problem if they want to have success in their relations with Latin-American libraries.

One new development which is attracting attention in both Latin America and the United States is the establishment of American libraries in several Latin-American capitals. The first one was inaugurated early in April in Mexico City. It is under the direction of Mr. Harry M. Lydenberg, formerly Director of the New York Public Library. Another one is being

organized under the direction of the writer, at Managua, Nicaragua, and Arthur G. Gropp has recently arrived at Montevideo with the same purpose in mind. Besides being centers of information about the United States these libraries will also be actual laboratories and demonstration centers where the librarians of the given country may go to see how American library ideas work. They may have read about them in books; they may have studied the theory, but now they have the opportunity to see the thing in operation. They will be free to come at any time to these libraries to discuss their problems, especially those of a technical nature and receive the advice of librarians of long experience who can help them with explanations, suggestions and demonstrations.

The Library of Congress is playing an increasingly important role in this picture. With its magnificent collection of Latin-American materials and its research facilities it is giving librarians and scholars in the other American republics every aid it can. Through its exchange facilities it has been putting important material in those libraries and in return has been getting full value. Because of its unceasing diligence it is now well known to scholars and librarians in those countries who have become more and more dependent on it for information and help. More recently this Library is attempting to promote the organization of Dictionary-Catalogs in certain Latin-American libraries and is offering the facilities of its Card Division to provide printed cards as available in order that they may start the organization of their catalogs. This measure may come to fill a great need of the libraries of the other Americas where the absence of good catalogs has been the one obstacle very hard to overcome by scholars and the public who come in search of knowledge or information.

Although not intended to promote library cooperation, the new program of translations of United States books into Spanish and Portuguese for distribution in Latin America will have a decided effect on the reading public. Two translations not included in this program but issued by the Committee on Library Cooperation with Latin America (Bostwick's *The Public Library in the United States* and Carnovsky's *Introduction to Library Practice in the United States*) have exercised considerable influence on



librarians in this region and we are beginning to see the effects of this work. Letters of inquiry requesting more information have been numerous and the number of editorials, reviews and articles about the subject in many newspapers will have their effect in the creation of a more favorable opinion towards the public library. These publications are contributing to bring about a change in the conception of the function of a library. Formerly it was considered as a warehouse for books guarded by the librarian. The modern idea is that the librarian should be the catalytic agent to bring about the union of the book with the reader. He should go out, invite and attract people into the library instead of frowning upon those who dare to enter.

There is much still to be done. More translations of books on Library Science into Spanish and Portuguese are sorely needed; more fellowships should be made available to bring young, intelligent librarians to study in our library schools; more American libraries to be used as demonstration centers should be established in other large cities of Latin America; more United States librarians should interest themselves in Latin America and travel as extensively in our neighboring nations as they did in Europe. It is essential to increase personal contacts among librarians and to promote means of exchanging information on books and publications. There is need for a catalog of Latin-American books similar to the *United States Catalog* and for a publication which will do for Latin America what *Publishers Weekly* does for the United States. Our book dealers should strive to give better service to American libraries seeking Latin-American books. There are several enterprising people who are earnestly working along this line but more needs to be done. We do not yet have a firm that will take the place of some of the European book dealers, who are now unable either to get new books from Latin America or to send what they have to the United States. In spite of present difficulties an attempt should be made to establish direct book trade with Latin America so that we may not have to depend on European dealers after the war.

In the opinion of the writer, cooperation among libraries in the Western Hemisphere is in its infancy. There is room for expansion and undoubtedly time will bring about the realization that close cooperation is both profitable and necessary to all con-



cerned. United States libraries must give more than they have in the past in the matter of exchanges. Already an attempt is being made to publicize United States culture in the other American republics through the efforts of the Division of Cultural Relations of the Department of State and the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. With the new emphasis on things Latin American in the United States a new era of understanding is in the making.

## THE JOYS AND SORROWS OF A COLLEGE PRESIDENT

JOHN L. SEATON

PRESIDENT, ALBION COLLEGE

**T**HE request to write a brief article on this subject came to me as a surprise. So much has been said and written about the joys and sorrows—especially the sorrows—of a college president that there seemed to be no need of further representations. Too frequently, though, the discussions have been theoretical—opinions based upon observation and rationalization. Perhaps testimony from a long and varied experience will not be amiss, even though it will make this article somewhat too personal.

### SORROWS

As I look back through the softening haze of the years the sorrows seem to be few and relatively unimportant. Probably that is what most presidents who have weathered long administrations would say. They seldom are disturbed about the constant and excessive strains involved in administration. President Ernest H. Wilkins who has been a professor, a dean and a president says in a published address that "in terms of the expenditure of all that one has to give a deanship is about five times as hard, as draining, as life-taking as a professorship; and a presidency is about three times as hard as a deanship." A president usually recognizes these demands as inevitable and takes them in his stride, "rejoicing as a strong man to run a race."

It would be easy also to list a multitude of irritants involved in a presidency, under even the most favorable conditions. Whenever college presidents come together they are likely to be explosive about them, although they know them to be actually of little importance. That is why they can talk so freely about them. As a rule these minor unpleasantnesses are expected, and are met with good grace and often a sense of humor which takes away the sting. However, there are a few ills, apparently inherent in the office, from which a president seldom can find "surcease of sorrow."

The first is the unjustified criticism of an ugly nature that comes from various sources, often quite irresponsible sources. Much has been said about the numerous "bosses" a college presi-

dent has. In my experience they have never been troublesome or unduly assertive. Trustees, alumni leaders, authorities of the church and others in responsible positions who had a right to express judgments and seek to direct policies always have been considerate and courteous. The caustic critics are the persons who know little about the situation and whose experience does not qualify them to express judgments. They are gadflies without beneficial results. One of my friends described the letters they write as "hot enough to burn the varnish off his desk." The sensible president tries to ignore them, yet their criticisms, continued and multiplied through the years, inflict wounds upon the spirit and too often become obstacles to the work.

Second, are the disillusionments that come partly from relations with persons and partly from the nature of the work. The president deals with all kinds of people. Some of them have vision and a ready response to ideals. As they look "far down the future's broadening way" they see the essential and enriching services rendered by the colleges and they generously sacrifice in the present in order to contribute to future values. Every president knows many instances of the kind that moved him deeply when they occurred and stir his heart as he recalls them. But there are others, unhappily numerous, who see little value in higher education and who will do nothing to promote it. Often they are in high places and able to control funds necessary for the development of the college. A process which by its nature is slow thus is retarded and sometimes halted for a long period. With presidents as with other people "Hope too long deferred maketh the heart sick."

Third, a sense of isolation is among the sorrows that a president seldom can escape. If he is a lover of humankind, as every president should be, it is especially distressing. He is in the faculty, but in a deep sense he is not of it as a professor is of it. Because of the tension that exists in every faculty with regard to rank, seniority and even social precedence he cannot have special friends among the members. Even so innocent a diversion as playing golf with one of them is likely to be regarded as an instance of "apple polishing." In the nature of things, also, there are many matters which he cannot discuss with any of them, although he may wish that he could. To a somewhat lesser extent he is isolated in the community. His office hedges him

about and prevents a freedom of association which he would enjoy. There are several citizens of Albion with whom I like to play golf, but they never ask me to play with them. Although I do not think that I am a particularly reserved or distant person the invitation has to come from me. In Rotary, too, a deference is accorded to the office, and contrary to Rotary regulations I frequently am addressed formally. Only when a president is away from his college and community and with friends can he be completely and happily himself—except, of course, within his own home.

A fourth sorrow is a sense of unfulfillment. That is not confined to college presidents, but it probably is more acute with them than with other people. It is so easy to draft plans on paper, to see visions of noble buildings and vast endowments and to dream enchanting dreams of a college complete in all its details and prepared to minister with highest effectiveness to the intellectual and spiritual needs of youth. But there always is a lag in fulfillment which widens as the years go by and the president is likely to feel more and more deeply that he is responsible for it. Perhaps that is well, however poignant as an experience. As Roscoe Pound said in a notable address, "An institution which gives organized expression to ideals lives in a vain struggle to realize them. It is right that we criticize it (and ourselves), as we must perennially, for falling short of what it seeks. But the danger is not that it will thus fall short. It is bound forever to fall short. The danger is that we cease to be troubled about its falling short, and through indifference or dogmatism or ignorance give up the quest or allow it to decay into an empty form." Each achievement in the development of a college demands something better to follow. Probably more than is usual among men a president's "reach should exceed his grasp" and he should increasingly be haunted by a sense of unfulfillment. Yet the experience is not pleasant. One wishes to be able at least to say and to feel it to be true: "In this edifice of civilization which has taken so many hundred years to build, I drive one golden nail."

#### JOYS

The picture of a president's life has somber hues, but after all the bright hues predominate. They illuminate it with beauty and charm. Who has opportunities equal to those of a president for service unique in kind and exceptional in value? Who has

such special compensations for the work and worry, the disappointments and shortcomings of life? Professor George Herbert Palmer, a great teacher, said in substance, "Harvard pays me for doing what I would gladly do for nothing, if I could afford it." That is what a college president might well feel and say about his work. Perhaps the degree in which it is true of him will be the measure of his success.

High among the joys of his life is the companionship with youth through the years. He has less of it than he would like to have. He is away from the campus frequently and sometimes for long periods. When at home he is pressed by so many demands upon his time and energy that opportunity for association with students is restricted. It must be admitted, too, that students are hesitant about coming to the president's office for counsel and still less for friendly conversation. Nevertheless, if the president is a genuine lover of youth—and who else should be a president—he always will be happily conscious of the students and will find many ways of intimate fellowship with them.

I have sometimes referred to the students whom I have been privileged to serve as "my sons and daughters of the spirit." In a deep and lasting sense they are, because a college takes its ideals and character largely from the president. His spirit pervades the entire institution, and both directly and indirectly affects the students. The degree to which their lives will be shaped is variable. As all parents and teachers know too well young people often are discouraging and apparently unresponsive. But the boy so slow to yield to kindly and generous influences and at times so annoying in his attitudes may become a man, strong and true, fit as the prophet said to serve "as a hiding place from the wind and a covert from the tempest, as streams of water in dry places, and as the shade of a great rock in a weary land."

We deal in college with almost infinite potentialities. We do not know and we cannot know what the students are in their deepest selves or what they may become. The fatal thing is to be merely "professional" with them and to feel that college life would be delightful were it not for the students. But if we live the right kind of life among them and out of a pure heart love them sincerely, gracious and beautiful results are accomplished in most of them. That is our abiding joy.

The privilege of participating in the great venture of universal education also ranks high among the joys of a president's life. Doubtless it is true as L. P. Jacks says that, "education is an obligation imposed by the nature of things on civilization in its totality; a mission in which every man or woman who knows the difference between true and false, what has a right to be and what has not, is called to be a minister, teacher, and learner." But the obligation has been recognized only at times and in limited areas. Here in America we think that education should be for everybody, and we are undertaking to supply it as a service due to society and to every human being. Teaching and providing good conditions for teaching, which is primarily the work of the administrator, are in themselves rich experiences. But they are greatly enhanced when conceived as part of a system to be given universal extension, and to bring all mankind under the reign of reason and conscience.

Such thoughts have a peculiar poignancy when nations are at war. My professional life is compassing its third war, and I have keenly felt the failures of education, yet I have never doubted that more and better education rather than less is the way to health and peace for the nations. We are now in a conflict between two irreconcilable ideals. The one is a recrudescence of barbarism made more dangerous by education; it holds that force armed with all the weapons of science is the final answer to questions. The other ideal looks to reason and conscience as the forces which must eventually rule. Only under them can the individual attain his full values and all men live together in mutual helpfulness. As never before education has the responsibility of teaching unmistakably the difference to humanity in these ideals, and of bringing about rejection of the one and complete unchanging adoption in thought and action of the other.

We have precious and costly gains to be conserved. There are other gains to be won and put in possession of all men. The college president has an important part in that vast movement. If he is a man of vision and faith he rejoices with a "joy exceeding and full of glory" that he is working with a universe which is essentially moral, and which guarantees through the devotion of such men as he that the "progress of mankind" though sub-



ject to long halts and recessions will be "onward and upward forever."

Closely related to these other happy experiences is the joy of building something to last. Constructive work of any kind has deep satisfactions. Kipling did not overrate "the joy of working." Much of our life necessarily is spent upon things of little meaning beyond the moment. But when we build a college we build for the centuries. We do it in two ways. The first is through the students who throng its halls and bear its values down the years. That service resists all the erosions of time and circumstance. The quality of eternity is in it.

The other and visible way is through the college itself, an institution of brick and mortar, of granite and marble, of ideals and convictions, of purposes and accomplishments which slowly rises under successive administrations. Faculties, trustees, alumni and a host of friends unite with the president in long years of thought and toil. Unrequited labors of love and stony griefs are sometimes their portion. But along the way are joys unnumbered and always the sense of service to ends more enduring and more valuable than an individual life can be.

I venture to voice in a few final words the feeling and the faith of our hard-working fraternity of college presidents. We are realists and at the same time we are long-range optimists. We know that whatever happens to us there stands the college, bringing to new meaning and beauty for the youth of today and to successive generations the ideals and sacred things for which we have lived. By an unconquerable urgency of the human spirit we continue to build in confidence that what we build will last. Undaunted by any disappointments in present results we throw ourselves boldly upon the future for those fulfillments which lie beyond sight. We college presidents perhaps more than other human beings take to heart and act with joy upon John Ruskin's noble words:

When we build let us think that we build forever. Let it not be for present delight nor for present use alone. Let it be such work as our descendents will thank us for, and let us think, as we lay stone upon stone, that a time is to come when these stones will be held sacred because our hands have touched them, and that men will say as they look upon the labor and wrought substance of them "See! This our fathers did for us."

## THE COLLEGE FACULTY AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

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IT often seems to the professional guidance worker that the lack of interest in, and frequent hostility to, vocational guidance on the part of faculty members arises from a failure to accept the term as it is, a tendency to see more or less in it than it really contains. And yet, as defined by the National Vocational Guidance Association, it is a clear enough concept. It is "the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon and progress in it. It is concerned primarily with helping individuals make decisions and choices involved in planning a future and building a career—decisions and choices necessary in effecting satisfactory vocational adjustment."<sup>1</sup> Since preparation for a career necessarily involves choice of studies and courses, of curricula and schools, it is evident that vocational guidance cannot be separated from educational guidance, and it is also evident that the faculty member who influences his students' choices, is, whether he likes it or not, involved in the guidance process.

A widespread error is the confusion between vocational guidance and vocational education, an error which has led many faculty members to maintain that vocational guidance has no place in the liberal arts college, and is a sign of mistaken emphasis. A clear differentiation should be made, however, between the two. Vocational *guidance* aims to help a student choose his career; vocational *education* seeks to train him for it after he has made the choice. One precedes the other, just as the liberal arts college precedes the professional school. The immediate aim of vocational guidance is to enable the student to make an intelligent decision with regard to a career, and to help him plan his program of life and study with that vocational goal in mind. It is not necessary to stress the importance both to the individual and to the nation of a successful vocational adjustment on the part of

<sup>1</sup> N. V. G. A., *The Principles and Practices of Educational and Vocational Guidance*. New York, 1937.

every individual, particularly in these times of dire emergency. It is not too much to say that our national future depends in large part on the success of our vocational guidance.

#### CENTRALIZATION VS. DECENTRALIZATION

In colleges and universities guidance has grown up almost entirely since the First World War, when our colleges were faced with very much the same problems we are tackling today. In the course of this growth several differing practices have arisen, but it should be pointed out that the similarities between these differences are ones of organization and of emphasis. All systems are agreed, however, that vocational guidance is the work of both faculty and guidance specialists, in fact, that everyone concerned with the college student has some part to play in his guidance.

Various colleges have developed their own systems of handling guidance. University of Minnesota has a highly centralized program in which attention is paid to distinguishing and fixing clearly the area of competence and incompetence of the instructional staff as regards counselling, while in the decentralized "guidance-curricula" at such schools as Sarah Lawrence and Bennington the efforts of professional counselors are given primarily not directly to student counselling, but to encouragement and development of instructors as counselors to their students. In between these two types are such schools as North Carolina, Columbia, and Iowa State, where the most gifted and interested instructors are designated as assistants to the dean and the personnel chief. Note that in all types of organization the faculty plays an important role. In fact, the history of personnel work at Minnesota, exponent of the centralized system, indicates how faculty responsibility for counselling college students has been extended in recent years. As Professor Williamson of Minnesota has pointed out, coordination and cooperation are more important than the question of centralization or decentralization.<sup>2</sup>

#### STUDENT-MINDEDNESS

Being the member of the staff closest to the student and in most

<sup>2</sup> E. G. Williamson and J. G. Darley, *Student Personnel Work*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1937. p. 66.

frequent contact with him, the faculty member is in the best position to give to guidance that element of continuousness which is necessary to its effectiveness. At best the Personnel Bureau of a college can have only occasional contact with most students. But the faculty, as a group, is in constant touch with all students. Whether they will be therapeutic adjuncts or problem creators will depend entirely on their attitude toward guidance. A state of student-mindedness in the faculty is rare in a college, although it is always found in a few teachers. Some men are able to win the confidence of their students without apparent effort. For them the rapport necessary for successful counselling is easy to achieve. For others it may be more difficult, but every good teacher will have some students who will prefer to discuss their problems with him. Hence it is the first duty of the faculty member to interview those students who would rather talk with him than with anyone else. These students he should assist to secure the information which will enable them intelligently to solve their problems. Often it will be necessary to refer the students to the personnel department for further assistance, for while the faculty member may be well equipped for his specific job, he will scarcely have the occupational information and the diagnostic techniques necessary for giving the seriously puzzled student the help he needs.

A certain body of knowledge every faculty member should have—knowledge of the vocational importance of his own specialty, of vocational problems in his own field. If he is a chemistry teacher, he should be familiar with the vocational situation in the chemical industries; if he is an English teacher, he should know something of literary and journalistic conditions. Today it is inexcusable for any teacher not to know the place of his specialty in national defense and the war effort, the ways in which his students can be of most service. He should be familiar with the background of essential and advisable courses, the graduate training and the employment possibilities in the fields close to his specialty, and should be able to recommend to students the best available sources of information. In securing this information the personnel department will always be willing to help the faculty member, and both should constantly emphasize to

students the necessity for obtaining complete information before making any decision.

Besides this direct role in guidance and besides his part in establishing contacts between students and personnel department, the faculty member may perform certain other important functions. He can send to the personnel director any occupational information which may come to his attention, especially about occupations related to the field in which he is a specialist. Moreover he can add to the student's permanent record card those significant characteristics or abilities which he has noticed. Indeed the report of faculty members, in conjunction with objective diagnostic techniques and the personnel interview, will serve to build up that complete picture of the individual which is necessary for sound vocational guidance.

Still more indirect ways in which the faculty member affects the vocational guidance of students are by his participation on committees for honors work or on scholarship committees. Such committees, of course, have definite effects upon students' vocational paths, and the student-minded teacher will look upon them as a part of the larger field of guidance.

#### THE FACULTY ADVISER AND THE SPECIALIST

In the last analysis, "the extent of the participation of faculty advisers will probably have to be determined by the student enrollment, the teaching load, the consequent free time for counselling, and the number of faculty members available with qualifications and genuine interest in general student counselling."<sup>3</sup> In any type of guidance set-up there is much that the faculty member can do, but there is a limit to the competence of the average faculty member, a limit imposed by lack of time, lack of facilities and lack of special training and temperamental qualifications. It has been estimated that from ten to twenty-five per cent of all college students need the services of expert, professional counsellors.<sup>4</sup>

A series of experiments conducted over a number of years at

<sup>3</sup> H. D. Bragdon, *Counselling the College Student*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1929. p. 133.

<sup>4</sup> Joseph Chassel, "Individual Counselling of College Students," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, IV, Nov., 1940, p. 205.



Minnesota indicate that there are definite limits to faculty guidance potentialities. The Minnesota investigators, seeking to find some satisfactory criterion of the effectiveness of advising, or in what way counselling was helpful to students, chose as the problem for investigation the improvement in scholarship resulting from faculty counselling. The results of this particular experiment, in which sixty-one experimental and sixty-one control students were involved, were approximately the same for both advised and unadvised students. The conclusion was that "study motivation" was too technical a task for faculty counsellors.<sup>5</sup> A later experiment with 196 students counselled by the Testing Bureau at Minnesota showed the specialists to be more efficient than the faculty advisers in diagnosing and uncovering problems of a complex nature.<sup>6</sup>

In other words, there is a definite field in which the faculty adviser can be very effective, and another in which the services of a specialist are required. One cannot lay down any rules for separating the two fields; as the faculty member gains experience in counselling, he will quickly learn to distinguish cases which offer genuine clinical problems requiring specialized attention and counselling service which he is unable to give himself. On the other hand, you will find that an increasing number of students require only his sympathetic and informed assistance to face and solve their own problems.

#### THE DEAN'S PLACE

There is a special role left for the Dean—that of coordinator. Dean Moore of the University of Texas has wisely said: "As I see it, the Dean of Men is put in office to study the various relationships of the students in his institution and to use every agency at his command to help these young people gain access to and benefit from the facilities of the institution."<sup>7</sup> Among these

<sup>5</sup> E. G. Williamson and E. Bordin, "Objective Evaluation of Student Personnel Service at the University of Minnesota," Chap. XXI of J. D. Russell, "Student Personnel Service in College and Universities," *Proceedings of the Institute of Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions*, 1940, Vol. XII. Chicago, 1941.

<sup>6</sup> E. G. Williamson, "Coordination of Student Personnel Services," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, IV, Nov., 1940, p. 230.

<sup>7</sup> *Proceedings of the 21st Annual Conference of National Association of Deans and Advisers of Men*, 1939, p. 51.



agencies is the personnel department, and, in addition to his other duties, the Dean's role in the vocational guidance program will be to provide contact between students and personnel department and between faculty and personnel department. In general, the Dean is concerned more with groups than with individuals, but, like every other member of the staff, he has both the responsibility and the obligation to aid any student who comes to him for help and to recommend him to the specialists who can give him extra help when that extra help is needed.

Thus a sound vocational guidance program, as Ruth Strang has said, "presupposes teachers who are equipped to understand differences . . . administrators who are able to secure community and school cooperation in making necessary environmental changes, and guidance officers who can render specialized technical services and stimulate and cooperate with teachers, administrators, and community agencies."<sup>8</sup> The faculty member who has been accustomed to think of his job in terms of subject matter may be alarmed at the responsibilities which the guidance concept places on him, but, if he considers the question, he will soon see that essentially what is expected of him is no more than "what the best teachers have always done"<sup>9</sup>—to do his part in bringing his students to happy and useful adulthood.

<sup>8</sup> R. Strang, *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work*. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. p. 15.

<sup>9</sup> R. H. Hoppock, "The Adviser's Part in the Personnel Program," *School and Society*, 35, May, 1932, p. 675.

## WHAT IS A WAR-WINNING IDEA?

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**T**HE successful prosecution of the war in a military sense is a government matter. The government is also furthering the war effort by requests and regulations affecting the people. At the same time, this is a people's war and must be won partly by the efforts of individual citizens.

The people have ideas. Individual ideas have developed local patterns of action which could and should be used throughout the nation. Some need the integrating and coordinating influence of government. Others need assistance which the federal government cannot and should not give but which can be rendered appropriately and readily through the hub of such a voluntary agency as VICTORY CENTER,<sup>1</sup> America's clearing house for war-winning ideas.

VICTORY CENTER is non-governmental, non-partisan and non-profit. It is not an operating agency. It is not buying or selling anything. It is a volunteer traffic squad helping in an emergency. Therefore it confines itself to being a stimulus for the free flow of ideas to win the war. Practical, but not inventive, ideas are wanted. Two government agencies are established to look into all inventions that might aid us in winning the war, and it is obvious that no civilian agency in time of war can have or obtain full knowledge of recent inventions.

There is, however, a tremendous field of ideas that has never been cultivated—the brains of Americans. All Americans have ideas. Some Americans have been lazy and have used their brains only to find faults or loopholes in the way that things are being handled on the home front. Discovering our errors or miscalculations is a useful thing, but if every American who sees an error should think out a way of overcoming the fault, it would bring victory nearer by incalculable hours. And even hours count! The end of the war seems a long way off, but if we can

<sup>1</sup> 745 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York.

cut it short by days or weeks or months we shall all be stronger for it—and happier.

As we become more deeply involved in total war, as it penetrates our lives in more and varied ways, the contribution that civilians can make in improving the efficiency of our nation at war grows ever greater. Fresh and new ideas are needed to increase public safety, to build morale, to conserve or salvage vital materials. Five specific ways in which VICTORY CENTER helps meet the need are:

1. *It encourages the generation of ideas for victory* by stressing the importance of such ideas and by providing an organization which is equipped to foster them.
2. *Selects and promotes nationally, ideas for victory that have been proved in isolated communities.* Ideas that have been used successfully at the local level need to be activated on a national scale.
3. *Assists in the refinement of ideas for victory* by channeling suggestions which need further research and development to sources where proper technical, financial, or manufacturing facilities are available.
4. *Enlists the support of individuals and groups* which can help to sponsor and spread ideas for victory.
5. *Serves in a liaison capacity* to lessen conflicts and overlappings between governmental and non-governmental programs.

The aims, organization, and the function of the Center are to act as a national suggestion box. The ideas submitted in writing to the Center are promptly acknowledged, classified and given a preliminary evaluation by the permanent staff. Every idea deemed worthy of further consideration is placed with the particular Committee of Consulting Experts under whose jurisdiction it falls. Committees will be formed to give consideration to new classifications as they arise. A placement staff determines the most likely channels for the nationwide promotion of any given ideas. Ideas that require financing for development and completion are sponsored through a project committee by patriotic corporations and individuals appreciative of the long-range good will these projects frequently carry with them. All sponsored projects are channelled through the organization—governmental or civilian—best able to handle them.

Each idea turned over to the placement staff has a staff "spon-

sor"—a consultant whose function is to follow through on the recommendation of the Committee and see to the successful use of the idea by the proper agency or organization. Periodic progress reports are made by the sponsors to the Executive Committee of the Center. Thus there is a definite check on accomplishment at all times.

Most people think in terms of a definite result, rather than of the ideas that bring about the result. They are somewhat vague as to what constitutes an idea, and many feel that ideas are something thought up by other people. Specific training is not necessary to produce ideas. Father Flanagan of Boys Town tells the story of a piece of elaborate machinery that would not work. Engineers were called in and failed to find the trouble. A non-mechanical workman came in, looked it over, and hesitantly suggested: "Shouldn't there be a screw at this point?" There *was* a screw missing, and once it was put in, the machinery functioned.

The complex machinery of a great nation can have screws missing too, and we need to find out exactly where they should go. How can public morale be improved? How can we best conserve vital materials? What good substitutes for materials and instruments can be made? How can volunteers be secured for civic agencies pledged to all-out efforts for victory? How can the food supply be improved and increased? What can be done for workers in airplane plants, munitions plants, shipbuilding yards? How can farmers get the farm-laborers they need? What can business concerns do for the dependents of their employees now in the armed forces? How can we improve and extend the sale of war bonds and stamps?

There is no place now for grumbling. "Why don't they do something about. . . ." Any American who feels that there is room for improvement should sit down and think how any specific situation could be improved. That suggestion is an *idea* ready to be sent to VICTORY CENTER where it will receive expert and careful consideration. All good ideas, large or small, receive attention at VICTORY CENTER, a co-ordinating point for the quick minds of resourceful Americans. VICTORY CENTER challenges the American public to put on its thinking cap and out-think the Axis.

## AMONG THE COLLEGES

**BIRMINGHAM-SOUTHERN COLLEGE'S** staff of the Physical Education Department has recently issued *The Physical Education Handbook* arranged by W. R. Battle, Jr. It has been prepared in order that the student may better understand the scope and significance of the whole physical education program.

**COLGATE UNIVERSITY** held inauguration exercises for Everett Needham Case, assistant dean of the Graduate School of Business Administration at Harvard University from 1939 to 1942, as ninth president of the University, on September 24, 1942. A feature of Inauguration Day was the reading of a message from President Roosevelt, who said in part, "The challenge of the new day for American colleges is very great. All our energies at the present must be devoted to winning the war. Yet winning the war will be futile if we do not throughout the period of its winning keep our people prepared to make a lasting and worthy peace."

**THE UNIVERSITY OF DENVER**, with the help of the United States Department of Education and the Office of Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, has established a Latin-American center with the object of creating better cultural and economic relations with the Latin-American countries.

**THE HARVARD UNIVERSITY TRADE UNION FELLOWSHIP PLAN.** Fifteen trade union representatives began a nine months' course of study at Harvard this fall. The course is sponsored by the Graduate School of Business Administration, the Littauer School of Public Administration and the Department of Economics. The cooperating unions selected their own representatives and among the first are members of the railway clerks, ladies' garment workers, hatters and electricians. There is no definite scholastic requirement, such as the completion of a high school education. It is recognized that many able men who could make an excellent record in the course have not completed such a curriculum. More important qualifications are general

intelligence, capacity for leadership and devotion to the labor movement. Besides selecting the students, the unions will pay their expenses and half of their tuition. The other half will be paid from a fund raised among friends of the University.

Three principal courses of study have been planned. One course, called "Economic Analysis," entails an appraisal of the economic condition of business enterprises and of industries. A second course deals with "Trade Union Problems and Policies," the students analyzing actual problems which have confronted the national officers of different unions. A third course is called "Human Problems of Administration" and involves a study of group psychology and problems which arise in handling groups of men. Twice a month a dinner and an evening meeting will be held at which the discussion will be led by a national union president, or vice-president, who will discuss a situation of special importance to his union. If the experiment proves to be a success, it will mark the beginning of an important new development in American university education.

**H**OPE COLLEGE dedicated and put into use a new \$250,000 Science Building on September 16, 1942.

**K**EUKA COLLEGE FIELD PERIOD PLAN. From December 9, 1942, through January 18, 1943, is Keuka College students' new Field Period. At this time the students leave the campus to pursue directed activities designed to prepare them specifically for their future lifework. Each student may undertake a project or a job, whose completion will merit academic credit. The purpose of the Field Period is: (1) to link education more closely with life experience; (2) to prepare women more adequately for careers; (3) to avoid the artificiality of an education exclusively based on theory; (4) to permit some vocational experimentation; (5) to permit some active participation in the war effort before graduation. The Field Period for the freshman year is an off-campus reading period—a part of the course in English—for the sophomore year, a period used to help the student to a clearer understanding of her interests and abilities, and to provide her with more clearly defined motives for study or, in some cases, with a new direction of effort; for the junior



year, a period of first-hand work experience; for the senior, a second period of work experience. Each student has two advisers, must prepare reports on the work daily and, at the close, a complete evaluation will be made by those in charge of the experiment.

**LANE COLLEGE** formally dedicated on September 17, 1942, its new \$25,000 Health Education Building.

**LEBANON VALLEY COLLEGE** has acquired the famous Heilman Library which contains many valuable German imprints. The college has added nearly 3,000 volumes to its collection. It is a heterogeneous collection, ranging from *incunabula* to the Elsie books, but its greatest value lies in its early American imprints.

**LEWIS AND CLARK** is the new name adopted by **ALBANY COLLEGE** in Portland, Oregon. The college has recently acquired an estate for a campus and is making plans for the future under the direction of newly-appointed President Morgan S. Odell.

**MACALESTER COLLEGE** has opened a new library building costing \$140,000. Mr. William P. Tucker, former librarian of the State of Washington, is the newly-appointed librarian at Macalester.

**THE PROGRAM OF THE CENTENARY YEAR OF NOTRE DAME UNIVERSITY** was launched on September 20, 1942, by a Mass with President Hugh O'Donnel, C.S.C., delivering the sermon. November 26 marks the actual anniversary of the arrival of Edward Sorin, C.S.C., and his Brother companions at the present site of Notre Dame. On that date a solemn pontifical Mass will be sung by Most Rev. John F. Noll, D.D., bishop of Fort Wayne.

**TRINITY UNIVERSITY**, a Presbyterian school founded in 1869 and formerly located in Waxahachie, Texas, moved to San Antonio where it opened its doors for the new school year on

September 21, 1942. Its new home is the buildings and campus of the former University of San Antonio, a Methodist institution.

**UPSALA COLLEGE** officially opened on October 2, 1942, new quarters for the study of science.

**VILLANOVA COLLEGE** commemorated the One Hundredth Anniversary of its founding by a Solemn Pontifical Mass of Thanksgiving on September 20, 1942, by His Eminence, Dennis Cardinal Dougherty, Archbishop of Philadelphia. The sermon for the occasion was preached by the Most Reverend Gerald P. O'Hara, D.D., Bishop of Savannah-Atlanta. Villanova College was the first Catholic college founded in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. It traces its lineage directly to the colonial foundation at old St. Augustine's Church in Philadelphia, where the Augustinian Fathers had established their first church and convent after their arrival in this country in 1794. It stems also from Saint Augustine's Academy, opened in 1811, the first educational venture of the Augustinians in the United States and the first Catholic high school in Philadelphia.

**WEST VIRGINIA WESLEYAN COLLEGE** is to have a one hundred thousand dollar Music Hall financed by Mrs. Lawson L. Loar. As the first step toward the consummation of the plan, and as the first contribution to it, Mrs. Loar has executed and delivered to the College a deed for her palatial home. This property will be sold by the College and the proceeds of sale preserved until building conditions are normal, when the plan will be completed.

**THE WOMAN'S COLLEGE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA** at Greensboro concluded its semi-centennial anniversary with formal exercises on October 5, 1942. Among the speakers were President Frank P. Graham, Administrative Dean Walter C. Jackson, President Isaiah Bowman of Johns Hopkins University, President Mildred McAfee of Wellesley College and Lieutenant-Commander of the WAVES, Dean Virginia C. Gildersleeve of Barnard College and Executive Director Guy E. Snaveley of the Association of American Colleges.

### NEW COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

Allegheny College, Meadville, Pennsylvania. John Richie Schultz (acting), dean of men.

College of Chestnut Hill, Chestnut Hill, Pennsylvania. Sister Maria Kostka, dean.

Fontbonne College, St. Louis University, St. Louis, Missouri. Mother M. Bernice O'Neill, director, department of education.

Georgetown College, Georgetown, Kentucky. Samuel S. Hill.

John Carroll University, Cleveland, Ohio. Thomas J. Donnelly, former rector, West Baden College, Indiana.

Long Island University, Brooklyn, New York. Tristram Walker Metcalfe, dean, college of arts and sciences. President Metcalfe is the first president of the University.

Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois. Joseph M. Egan, assistant. Provincial, Chicago Province.

Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia. John Davis Williams, director, University School, University of Kentucky.

Northland College, Ashland, Wisconsin. John A. Reuling.

Oregon State College, Corvallis, Oregon. August Leroy Strand, president, Montana State College, Bozeman, Montana.

Quincy College, Quincy, Illinois. Seraphin Tibesar.

Southwestern Baptist Theological Seminary, Seminary Hill, Texas. E. D. Head, pastor, First Baptist Church, Houston, Texas.

State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania. Joseph M. Uhler, acting president.

Thiel College, Greenville, Pennsylvania. William F. Zimmerman, dean, Midland College, Fremont, Nebraska.

University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tennessee. David A. Lockmiller, professor of history and political science, North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering, Raleigh.

University of Scranton, Scranton, Pennsylvania. W. Coleman Nevils, acting rector.

## ADDITIONS TO THE OFFICE LIBRARY

- Abstracts of Dissertations Presented by Candidates for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.* Spring Quarter, 1941. Summer Quarter, 1941. Autumn Quarter, 1941. Winter Quarter, 1942. The Ohio State University, Columbus. 1942. 377 p., 330 p., 286 p.
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- ATKINSON, CARROLL. *Radio in State and Territorial Education Departments.* Meador Publishing Company, Boston. 1942. 136 p. \$1.50.
- BENEDICT, AGNES E. *Progress to Freedom.* The Story of American Education. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 1942. 400 p. \$3.00.
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- CLARK, FRED G. *Magnificent Delusion.* Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York. 1940. 155 p. \$1.00.
- GERWIG, GEORGE WILLIAM. *Everychild an American Ideal.* School Betterment Studies, Vol. 4, No. 2. October, 1942. Henry C. Frick Educational Commission, 465 Union Trust Building, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. 104 p.
- EISENBERG, WILLIAM EDWARD. *The First Hundred Years—Roanoke College, 1842-1942.* Published by the Trustees of Roanoke College, Salem, Virginia. 1942. 511 p.
- GITTINGER, ROY. *The University of Oklahoma—1892-1942.* A History of Fifty Years. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman. 1942. 282 p. \$2.50.
- JACKSON, SIDNEY L. *America's Struggle for Free Schools.* Social Tension and Education in New England and New York, 1827-42. 276 p. American Council on Public Af-

fairs, Washington, D. C. 1942. \$3.50, cloth edition; \$3.00, paper edition.

LESTER, ROBERT M. *A Thirty Year Catalog of Grants—1911–1941*. Carnegie Corporation of New York, New York. 1942. 147 p.

LOCKMILLER, DAVID A. *The Consolidation of the University of North Carolina*. Published by the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill. 1942. 160 p. \$3.00 (in paper cover, \$2.00).

MEIKLEJOHN, ALEXANDER. *Education Between Two Worlds*. Harper & Brothers, New York. 1942. 303 p. \$3.00.

*The Training of Secondary School Teachers—Especially with Reference to English*. Report of a joint committee of the faculty of Harvard College and of the Graduate School of Education. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts. 1942. 173 p. \$1.50.

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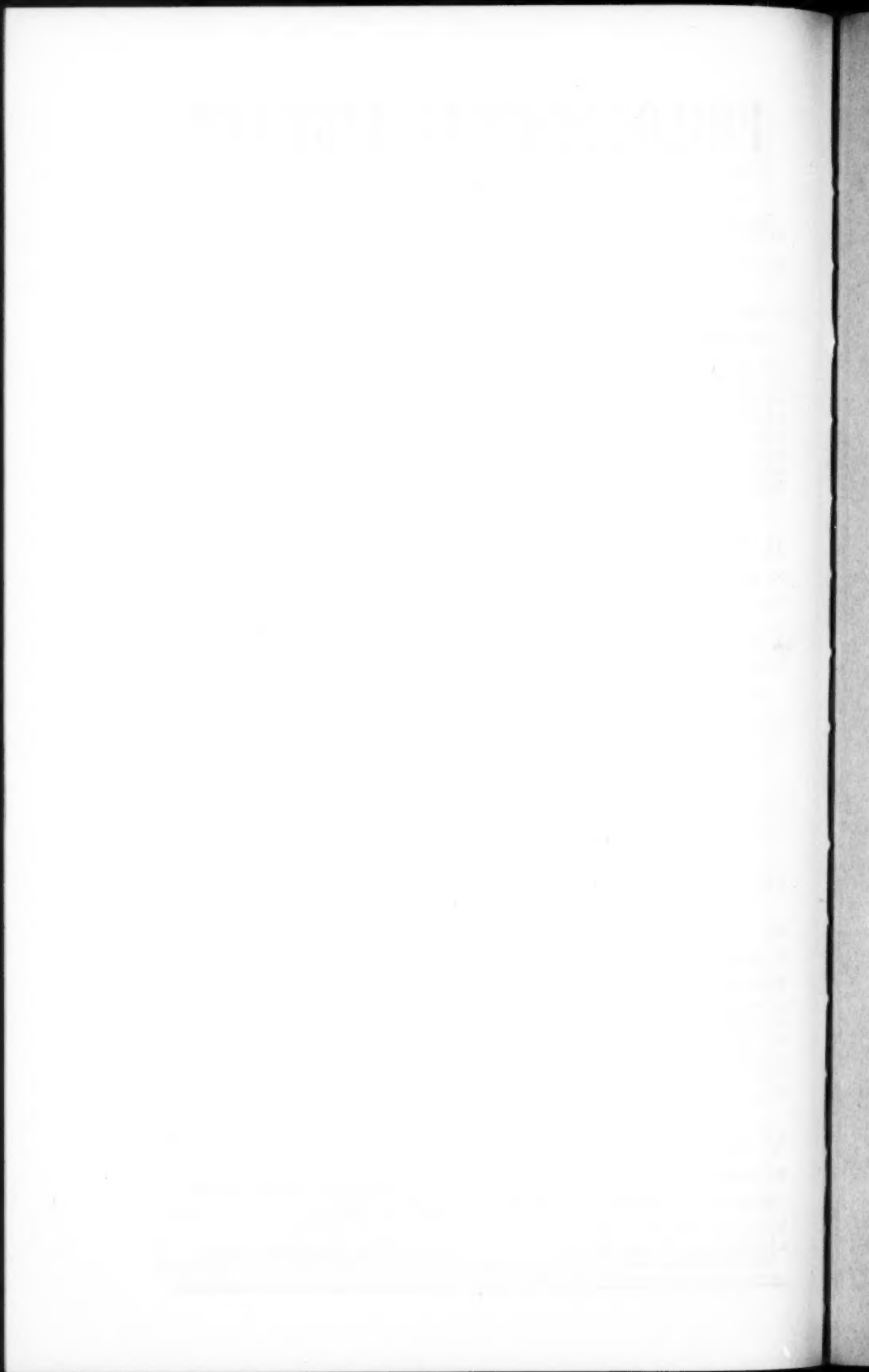
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